EXAMINING THE EXPERIENCES OF WOMEN SPORT MANAGEMENT FACULTY: A CASE-STUDY ANALYSIS

A Dissertation

by

HAILEY E. DAEHNKE

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

May 2011

Major Subject: Kinesiology

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Approved by:

Co-Chairs of Committee,	Akilah Carter
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ABSTRACT

Examining the Experiences of Women Sport Management Faculty:

A Case-Study Analysis. (May 2011)

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Framed as an instrumental case study, the purpose of this investigation was to examine the challenges women face and the experiences that women have as faculty members in academia. Data was collected by using a qualitative in-depth semi-structured interview methodology. The women who were selected for this research are tenured or tenure-track faculty in sport management departments at a University in the Midwest. The data analysis consisted of unitizing the data, followed by coding the data in categories and themes. Feminist Standpoint Theory was utilized to help understand the experiences of the female faculty.

This investigation found that female tenured or tenure-track faculty had several common experiences during their academic careers. All of the women discussed the importance of the institutional and departmental climate at the University. Additionally, they examined the marginalization they had felt from their students while teaching classes. Specifically, they cited many students questioned their knowledge about sport because they are female. Furthermore, the participants also discussed the challenges that

came from work-life conflict. Each participant discussed the impact various mentor relationships had on them throughout their academic careers. Mentoring relationships were critical to those participants that had them as both students and current faculty members. Finally, the support mechanisms each faculty member used to benefit their career were examined, noting specifically the impact of conference attendance as both a means of professional and personal support.

DEDICATION

To my mom, who showed me just how strong women can be.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Without the support of many different people throughout this process, the completion of this dissertation would not have been possible. First, I would like to thank my family and friends for their patience and encouragement as I sought my degree. More than once, I was not able to come home when needed or spend time with them. However, they have been more than understanding. Though I can't mention them all by name, know that you are all appreciated. Secondly, I would like to thank my colleagues at Texas A&M University: Claudia, Tommy and Josh. Thank you for your never-ending support and guidance. You have provided a shoulder to cry on and an ear to listen many times. I never would have gotten through this without you.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Throughout the second half of the 20th century, workforces faced the challenge of finding a balance between the participation of women in the home and in the workplace (Bradley, 2000). As the nature of work and family shifted, more and more women began entering the workforce (Blackburn & Jarman, 2006). However, as women entered the workforce, they have faced a set of challenges unique to them, including the gendered nature of work, family conflict, and the barriers of the glass ceiling, all of which result in insecurity, lack of confidence, and social isolation (Cummins, 2005).

These challenges are seen in various areas of the workforce, including business management, military, and academia (Harris, 2009). For the focus of this study, I will examine the experiences of women in academia, specifically in the field of sport management. Women report daily struggles of isolationism and stereotyping (Acker & Armenti, 2004). They also struggle with student perceptions that they are less qualified and objective than their male counterparts (Messner, 2000; Sosa & Sagas, 2008, Cunningham, Sartore, Chaney, & Chaney, 2009). Additionally, since women are more likely than men to be at the lower faculty ranks, they are often least positioned to facilitate change (Harris, 2009).

In addition to the daily issues women academics face, those who are hired into faculty positions must negotiate the academic political climate in different ways than their male colleagues. Critical to this political navigation is the idea of promotion and

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This dissertation follows the style of *Journal of Sport Management.*

tenure. Academia utilizes an up or out promotion and tenure system (Harris, 2009). Those who successfully navigate the requirements of the process are rewarded with tenure, while those who do not are forced out of academia. Women face unique pressures in the tenure process if they choose to have children. Even though many schools now allow the tenure clock to be frozen for women who have children, many choose not to use it because they feel negative attitudes from colleagues (Benschop & Brouns, 2003). In addition to tenure pressures, female faculty members often feel the pressure of tokenism (Harris, 2009). When women feel they are a token hire, they may face hostility from coworkers and decreased self-confidence.

Statement of Purpose

The current literature on female academics provides a snapshot of the experiences of women in higher education (DiFuccia, Pelton, & Sica, 2007; Harper, Baldwin, Gansneder, & Chronister, 2001; Harris, 2009). However, it does not present a clear picture of how female academics in sport management positions negotiate their jobs and create satisfaction in their field. Women hired into faculty positions must negotiate the complicated areas of being a female in a male dominated arena. This study examines the challenges women face and experiences they have when negotiating their positionality within a male dominated domain.

Significance of the Research

In this study, I investigate female sport management faculty experiences in academia. Such a study is important because a lack of female faculty exists in higher education and sport management (Benschop & Brouns, 2003; Bradley, 2000; Sibson,

2010). Though there have been efforts to improve the experiences of women in higher education and in the workforce, a struggle to find a balance between women's participation in the home and workplace still exists (Bradley, 2000). Women report higher levels of job dissatisfaction than their male counterparts and leave the field voluntarily more often than men (DiFuccia, Pelton, & Sica, 2007).

Delimitation

Women tenure track or tenured faculty were selected because of the sharp difference in the representation of females and males in those positions. Women are overrepresented in lecturer and non-tenure track positions, while tenure-track and tenured positions are traditionally held by men (Benschop & Brouns, 2003). Tenured positions in general offer more prestige and job security, so it is important to examine why fewer women hold these positions (Gibson, 2006). In addition to the benefits of tenure for the faculty themselves, others benefit from having female faculty members as well. Students benefit from hearing a variety of perspectives from diverse faculty (Simeone, 1987. Secondly, the lack of female faculty sends a subconscious message to students. For example, if females are not employed as faculty by a department, it may seem that their thoughts and opinions are not valued (Shaw & Allen, 2009). Additionally, if women are not present, the research questions they would have based on their unique experience and perspectives would not be asked. Finally, if the number of women in higher education and sport management is to be increased, it is important to support the effort to recruit and retain female faculty.

Even though a growing amount of literature explores the experiences of female professors in academia (DiFuccia, Pelton, & Sica, 2007; Harris, 2009) and the experiences of females in the sport industry (Cunningham & Sagas, 2008; Shaw & Frisby, 2006) little information exists about the experiences and overall job satisfaction of women academic faculty in Sport Management positions.

Limitations

This study does have several limitations. First, as a case study, it exams a relatively small number of female faculty members at only one university. Moreover, the sport management department selected is unique compared to sport management departments at other institutions. It has a large number of faculty overall, and a large percentage of women faculty, something not common in many sport management departments. The number of female and male tenured or tenure-track faculty members are nearly even. Due to this factor, the experiences of these female faculty members may be very different than those at other institutions.

Research Question

Based on the theoretical framework, literature review, and purpose of this study, the following research question was formulated:

How do women Sport Management faculty members describe their experiences over the course of their professional lives?

Definition of Terms

Throughout this paper, several different terms will be used consistently. Before discussing how these items relate, it is important to create an accurate and clear

definition of each term. Below is a brief definition of several significant terms. Each term will be expanded, and their significance to the project discussed in the literature review.

Gender

Gender refers to the socially constructed roles that are deemed acceptable for women and men (Cunningham, 2007).

Glass Ceiling

The glass ceiling refers to "artificial barriers to the advancement of women and minorities" (Cotter, Hermsen, Ovadia, & Vanneman, 2001, p. 656). The ceiling separates those who are able to advance in an organization and those who are left behind. It is referred to as the glass ceiling because it is an unseen, yet unbreachable barrier that prevents women and racial minorities from rising to the upper rungs of an organization (Cotter et al., 2001).

Mentor

A seasoned professional who trains, guides, and supports a less experienced person (Hill & Ragland, 1995).

Occupational Segregation

Blackburn and Jarman (2006) define occupational segregation as the "tendency for men and women to be employed in different occupations from each other across the entire spectrum of occupations" (p. 290). If members of one sex are more significantly represented in a specific occupation than the other sex, this phenomenon is known as

occupational concentration. Common occupations that experience concentration are nursing, social work, and law enforcement (Blackburn & Jarman, 2006).

Sex

Sex refers to the biological characteristics that define women and men (Cunningham, 2007).

Sport Management

Sport management is a field of study that focuses on the organization and administration of physical education and athletics (Slack, 1996).

Tenure

Tenure is the basic structure in Academia that provides protection for faculty to undertake investigations without the fear of penalty, specifically termination (Stancato, 2000). Specifically, tenure allows professors to tackle topics and issues that may be controversial or unpopular in the pursuit of academic truth.

Tenure Track

Tenure track refers to academic or faculty positions that have the promise of becoming tenured positions (Stancato, 2000).

Organization of Dissertation

The dissertation is organized into five chapters. Chapter II contains the literature review, which includes a discussion of women in the workforce, women in higher education, the history of women's participation in sport, and the merging of sport and academics in the field of sport management. The theoretical framework is also discussed in this section. Chapter III presents the research methods of the study. In this

chapter, the participant selection process, procedures and analyses are detailed. The results of the study and their implications are discussed in Chapter IV, while Chapter V contains conclusions, potential limitations, and future research questions.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Overview

The purpose of this dissertation is to examine the experiences of female tenured and tenure-track sport management professors' experiences in academia. In order to examine this phenomenon, this chapter examines the relevant literature pertinent to the research questions. The review of literature first examines the definition and significance of gender. Second, the history of women in the workforce to understand the path many women have taken from the role of traditional housewife to the current working women of today will be examined. Next, the history and impact of Title IX is scrutinized. A detailed examination of the experiences of women in higher education, from both the standpoint of a student and as an employee, follows. A discussion of the history of women in sport is also examined. The merging of both sport and academia into the field of sport management is discussed. Finally, the theoretical framework from which to examine the phenomenon is outlined.

Significance of Gender

Before discussing the differences between men and women and their experiences, it is important to examine how gender is constructed in the United States. Sex consists of two categories, male or female, based on the presence, or absence, of reproductive organs (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004). Even though there are a large number ways to categorize people, sex is found to be one category often used to categorize

people (Glick & Fiske, 1999). Gender refers to more than just sex. It is a term given to the socially constructed roles and identities often attributed to each sex (Cunningham, 2007). Additionally, gender is also an ingrained system of separating people into two groups, which often lead to inequality based on those groups (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004). Gender is culturally constructed from biological sex and social institutions, such as family, education, legal, and military institutions which often reflect a cultures beliefs about gender (Wood, 1996). Although reproductive organs establish women as the sex who is able to give birth, it is gender that focuses on women as caretakers after birth (Wood, 1996).

Gendering occurs in five different areas (Acker, 1990). The first is along labor lines. Certain employment or work, such as housekeeping or care giving, is often seen as women's work. The second area gender occurs with the creation of signs that emphasizes the divisions along gender that were created. The third area of gendering is in communication. This communication can occur between genders and among genders. Fourth, the identity of individuals is a combination of the first three areas and manifests in dress, language, and presentation. Finally, social institutions such as family, religion, and work organizations also show gendering (Acker, 1990).

Gender is not a fixed entity. It is fluid and changes over time (Wood, 1996). Different cultures at different times have seen areas of gender change. Looking at the history of the United States, a shift in gender norms has occurred, from the women of colonial times to the working women of today (Cahn, 1994). Gender is learned by individuals (Wood, 1996). Often, gender roles are seen as what is appropriate behavior

for women and men (Cunningham, 2007). This behavioral learning occurs at infancy, and is reinforced through childhood by games and through adulthood through family and peer communications and education (Wood, 1996). Gender, though important, does not function in a vacuum. Gender intersects with class, race, ethnicity, and religion (Wood, 1996). Additionally, depending on the situation, gender may play less of a role than other identities, such as race and age.

Women in the Workforce

Women have often been viewed as both intellectually and morally inferior to men, both in the United States and around the world (Baunach, 2002). Even though this attitude has shifted some in recent years, women still face many challenges to achieve a fairness and balance in both their personal and professional lives. Work acts as a critical location in which gender norms are repeatedly reinforced. This section will discuss the history of women in the workforce in the United States.

Reviewing the history of women in the workforce helps to better understand the current issues for women in the workforce in the United States. The role of women outside the home has changed dramatically (Hoffman & Averett, 2005). At the turn of the 20th century, less than one in five women worked outside the home for pay, while more than 85 percent of men age 14 and older worked (Hoffman & Averett, 2005). Additionally, women who were employed in the workforce were usually single (Hoffman & Averett, 2005).

Women's participation in the workforce changed dramatically during World War II. Increasing numbers of women entered the workforce to replace the male workers

entering into military service. In addition to entering the workforce, women were entering positions that had been previously reserved for men: high-paying and industrialized (Hoffman & Averett, 2005; Treiman, 1985). Once the war was over and men returned, women were forced to give up the high paying jobs (Treiman, 1985).

After World War II, the demographics of women in the workface continued to change. Between 1940 and 1986, the number of women age 16 and older employed increased from 27 percent to 55 percent (Hoffman & Averett, 2005). Typically women in the workforce were unmarried and would leave once they were married or had children. In 1950, only 20 percent of women in the workforce were married; since 1990, the number of married women employed has remained near 60 percent (Hoffman & Averett, 2005; Treiman, 1985).

Though the number of women in the workforce has increased, women tend to remain in certain career fields. Blackburn and Jarman (2006) define occupational segregation as the "tendency for men and women to be employed in different occupations from each other across the entire spectrum of occupations" (p. 290). If members of one sex are more significantly represented in a specific occupation than the other sex, this phenomenon is known as occupational segregation. Occupations that often experience segregation are nursing, social work, and law enforcement (Blackburn & Jarman, 2006). This is significant because the fields women typically find themselves in may often less pay and prestige.

Crowding refers to the large number of women in certain occupations and the lack of women in others (Winter-Ebmer & Zweimuller, 1992). The crowding hypothesis

presents two explanations why females typically enter lower paying female-dominated professions instead of higher paying male-dominated professions. The first idea is women are discouraged from attempting to enter these fields. The second idea is once in the field, women are promoted at much lower rates and receive lower wages and raises. This discouragement can lead to lower promotions and negative job experiences. These experiences have a strong impact on women's choices of both schooling and occupations in the future. Because women hold different positions in the workforce than men, this may lead to different career issues and challenges.

Women face a very different set of issues, challenges, and situations in employment than men do (Acker & Armenti, 2004). These challenges can include the ways women are treated by the people they come into contact with during the day, including superiors, colleagues, and subordinates (Harris, 2009). The challenges can also include the way women plan their careers and their future. Women may choose to delay having children or try to get pregnant at a certain time based on the tenure process (Harris, 2009). An additional challenge to women is the lack of and slower rate of promotion compared to males (Benschop & Brouns, 2003). These different challenges can help to examine the unique experiences women face in the workplace and help explain why women tend to be crowded into certain fields.

In order to deal with discrimination against women, a variety of laws have been passed to ensure the protection of women's rights. The Equal Pay Act was signed in 1963 and prohibited discrimination in wages based on sex. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibited employment discrimination based on race, color, sex, religion, or

national origin. Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 prohibited discrimination based on sex in institutions of higher education which receive federal funding. All of these laws hoped to reduce discrimination against women.

Even though some time has passed since the inception of the aforementioned laws, wage discrepancy still occurs. In 1979, when comparable earnings data first became available, women earned only 63 percent of males earned (Bureau of Labor Statistics). In 2010, the median wage for women workers was 81 percent of male workers, with women earning $669 per week, compared to $824 per week for men. This is more than just an issue for women, as the discrepancy of wages affects families as well. Women who are single parents have a more difficult time earning a wage for their family. Additionally, women who earn less than men are often the ones who stay home with children when they are sick, encouraging the role of the woman as the homemaker (Blackburn & Harmon, 2006). The wage discrepancy also looks to issues of power. People who make more money typically are able to move up in the world at faster rates.

Title IX

In order to deal with discrimination against women, a variety of laws have been passed to ensure the protection of women's rights. The Equal Pay Act was signed in 1963 and prohibited discrimination in wages based on sex (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity, a). Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibited employment discrimination based on race, color, sex, religion, or national origin" (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, b). Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 (Title IX) prohibited discrimination based on sex in institutions of higher education

which receive federal funding (United States Department of Labor). All of these laws hoped to reduce discrimination against women.

Title IX has a significant impact on women seeking higher education. It covers a variety of areas within the field of education, including admissions, housing, participation, and athletics. Women have entered higher education at higher rates today than in the past (Benschop & Brouns, 2003). Title IX has allowed them to receive the same benefits as men. These benefits have increased the number of women seeking degrees in higher education (Acker & Armenti, 2004). Today, more than 50 percent of bachelor's degrees go to women (Benschop & Brouns, 2003). In 1972, women earned 41 percent of master's degrees; by 2004, women earned 59 percent of master's degrees. During the same timeframe, in 1972 women earned 16 percent of doctorates awarded in the United States; by 2004, women earned 48 percent of doctorates (West & Curtis, 2006).

In addition to the increased opportunities for women in education, Title IX has brought a variety of changes to the opportunities available for women in athletics, impacting both athletes and coaches. Some of these changes have been positive (e.g., increased female participation in sport), while others have been negative (e.g., decreased number of women administers in sport). Even with these negative changes, Title IX has had a significant impact on women's sports in many different ways.

One of the most significant changes that occurred because of Title IX is the participation of women in various areas of athletics. The participation of females in athletics is at one of their highest points ever (Acosta & Carpenter, 2010). However,

opportunities for women in sport other than participation, such as coaching and administration, are decreasing. In fact, the number of female coaches is at one of the lowest points since the inception of Title IX (Acosta & Carpenter, 2010). This is an alarming trend for women. Even though participation is up, the amount of women in power positions is decreasing. This shift in coaching has had many different effects. First, the decrease of women in head coaching positions is creating a negative image of the profession. Some female athletes do not see coaching as a viable option (Cunningham & Sagas, 2008). They may see it as a field dominated by men, a place where they will be a minority and face discrimination. This attitude creates a circular pattern; thus, as the number of women's coaches decrease, the belief that coaching is a viable field for female athletes decreases. Therefore, as perceived viability decreases, the number of women interested in head coaching positions also decreases. Since fewer women are interested in coaching, fewer women are hired, decreasing the total number of female head coaches. As the number of female head coaches decreases, female athletes no longer believe being a head coach is a viable option, and the cycle starts all over again.

In addition to the viability of the field, researchers have presented three factors which affect women as coaches and administrators. The factors play on the cycle, increasing each of the coaching factors. The first of these is reduced human capital. When female coaches are promoted, they start to receive fewer promotions and raises than their male counterparts (Sagas, Cunningham, & Pastore, 2006). Female coaches also have reduced social capital compared to male coaches. Social capital is the social

network and contacts that a person has (Sagas, Cunningham, & Pastore, 2006). If female coaches have reduced social capital, the ability to advance in their career may be reduced.

Significant gains for women in athletics and sport have been made as the result of Title IX. However, threats to Title IX currently exist. At the thirty-five year anniversary of Title IX, numerous discussions occurred about whether there remains a needed for Title IX legislation in our schools. Critics argued that schools were willingly complying with the law, so it was no longer necessary to keep it on the books and enforce it. However, this is clearly not the case. There are still cases that occur where Title IX is not in compliance. Furthermore, certain schools are more at risk for noncompliance than others. Schools in the South and Midwest or schools with football programs have a higher likelihood of being noncompliant with Title IX (Anderson, Cheslock, & Ehrenberg, 2006).

Women in Higher Education

The experiences and challenges for women begin early in their higher education experience. For example, female students report higher levels of discrimination and unhappiness in the classroom and female faculty have higher levels of stress from the job than their male counterparts. Those different experiences are detailed below.

Women as Students

Though women earn a significant amount of graduate degrees in the United States, they often have very different experiences than men in all areas of academia, and they begin long before the first day of their first academic position. In fact, they start

even before women begin a Ph.D. program. Female graduate students often report that they have very different experiences than their male counterparts (e.g., lack of support, discrimination, chilly environment), starting at the master's level (Elg & Jonnergard, 2003; Monk-Turner & Fogerty, 2010). Male students are more likely to be encouraged to further their education by professors than are female students (Elg & Jonnergard, 2003). This lack of encouragement often reduces the number of females who choose to pursue further education, especially in male-dominated fields (e.g., engineering, math).

Females who choose to pursue a Ph.D. continue to feel discrimination and lack of department support, especially if they are in a male-dominated field (Ülkü-Steiner, Kurtz-Costes, & Kinlaw, 2000). Additionally, women in male-dominated Ph.D. programs reported lower confidence in their own abilities than women in gender neutral programs (Ülkü -Steiner et al., 2000). Female students felt higher levels of stress and discrimination than their male counterparts. In addition to these factors, women are more likely to report a "chilly climate" than their male counterparts at both the undergraduate and graduate levels (Monk-Turner & Fogerty, 2010; Whitt, Nora, Edison, Terenzini, & Pascarella, 1999). Chilly climate refers to the fact that female students in higher education find the classroom less friendly than male students. This is important, since this environment results in women participating less frequently in classroom discussions (Hall & Sandler, 1982).

As women report higher levels of discrimination and report a chilly environment, it is important to determine how they deal with these issues. Elg and Jonnergard (2003) examined female Ph.D. students in a Swedish business school and found that females

who chose to pursue their Ph.D. selected one of three different strategies to attain their goal. The first strategy was compliance. Women who used this strategy followed the traditional norms and values of their department. They had been referred to the graduate program by faculty because they fit in and accepted the current value system. Thus, the opportunity to earn a Ph.D. fell into their lap. The second strategy was opportunity seeking. These students have the goal of earning their degree from the beginning and seek to meet this goal. Here women took the initiative to find someone willing to work with them and worked to find their own funding. The final strategy was avoidance. These students worked primarily to earn their degree outside the department. They often had family circumstances that did not allow them to pursue their degree in a traditional fashion. These strategies varied for the graduates, with some being more successful than others. Not surprisingly, those who chose the compliance method were more successful than those who chose one of the other methods. These women succeeded partially because they did not speak out against certain issues and fit in nicely.

Women as Faculty

Just as women report different experiences than men in graduate school, women faculty members also report these same issues. One issue unique to faculty is the type of position to which a faculty member is hired. The most common distinction for faculty employment positions is the distinction between tenure and non-tenure positions. Tenure provides protection for faculty members, specifically from termination (Stancato, 2000). It allows them to chance to discuss controversial topics without fear or

repercussions. Non-tenure tracks do not have these same protections. In general, tenure positions have more prestige (Stancato, 2000).

The increase in non-tenure track full-time positions is an extremely important consideration for women planning on entering academia as professors. Tenured positions carry more prestige and job security than non-tenure track positions. However, women have not been in many of these academic fields as long as men, and are just now entering certain fields (Harris, 2009). At the same time more women are entering faculty positions, the number of tenure-track positions that are available are decreasing, which creates a significant disadvantage for women. From 1975 to 1985, women entered academia at an increasing rate. However, as women enter academia, they are disproportionally entering the field in non-tenure track positions. From 1975 to 1985, the percentage of women in tenure-track positions increased from 18.3 percent to 20.7 percent (Harper et al., 2001). During the same time period, the percentage of women in full-time non-tenure track positions rose from 33.6 percent to 40.3 percent (Harper et al., 2001). Thus, the percentage increase for the number of females in full-time non-tenure track positions was double the percentage growth for females in full-time tenure track positions. From 1994-95 to 1995-96, only 52 percent of institutions reported a net gain of female faculty members. However, only 48 percent of these same schools had an increase of tenured female faculty during that time (Harper et al., 2001).

Several different reasons have been proposed for why women are entering full-time non-tenure track positions or are promoted at slower rates than their male colleagues. The first reason proposed is women choose to enter full-time non-tenure

track positions. Women are much more likely to see a career in research and a family as two mutually exclusive opportunities than are their male counterparts. Many women feel in order to have a family, they have to sacrifice their entire career or the research component, and vice versa (Harris, 2009). Male faculty members, however, do not feel these same types of pressures. Of married faculty, only 33 percent are women (Harper et al., 2001). Additionally, they represent over half of the faculty members who are divorced, separated, widowed, or who have never been married. Of all faculty members who have children, only 29 percent are women (Harper et al., 2001). These views suggest women do not feel they can have both family and career and do so successfully, so they seek out positions they feel will allow them to have both, which are often the full-time non-tenure track.

A second proposed reason for the cluster of women in lower positions is a lower amount of research. Women tend to spend more time on teaching and other activities to the college than their male counterparts, even in full-time tenure-track positions that are focused on research. Males spend more time on research in both tenure-track and non-tenure track full-time positions, which some argue leads to more promotions (Harper et al., 2001).

Five explanations exist for the reduced research load of female faculty. The first is the increased teaching loads of female professors. Many female faculty estimate more time is spent on teaching and students than their male colleagues. In fact, some women even felt they had positions that frowned on large amounts of research at the expense of their teaching (Krefting, 2003).

The second explanation for the reduced research of female faculty is the amount of college service required by the department. In extremely male dominated fields, very few women hold full-time tenure-track positions. Since very few females are employed within the department, they often have to represent the female voice in many different situations. Committee membership is a prime example of this phenomenon (Krefting, 2003). If a department has 25 faculty members and only five of them are women, the women will end up serving on more committees than the men, just to ensure that the female voice is heard. For example, imagine a department has five different committees, with five members on each committee, and the department requires at least two females sit on each committee to ensure that all voices are heard. Using this breakdown, one can assume that each committee will have three males and two females. This creates a total of 15 committee spots that will be filled by men and ten committee spots that will be filled by females. Since 20 members of the faculty are male, each male would only have to serve on one committee and five male faculty members would not have to serve on a committee at all. The male faculty can rotate positions so that each one would not have to serve on a committee at one time. However, because of the reduced number of female faculty and the importance of the female voice, female faculty members would each have to serve on two committees and do not have the option of rotating out of committee work at some point.

The third explanation for the reduced amount of research that may be performed by women is the perceived conflict of work and life. Studies show that fathers have assumed greater responsibility for the care of children, women continue to shoulder

primary responsibility of their children (Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2004). Women who care for children typically experience disparaging effects on their research, writing, and teaching, and ultimately hit a plateau in their careers (Acker & Armenti, 2004; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2004). Many women choose non-tenure track positions because they feel a conflict between family and career. The timing for this conflict is extremely important to note. A large number of women are entering critical points of the tenure process and their career at the same time many are getting ready to start families. Due to this perceived conflict, they choose positions that would allow them to have flexibility with their children and families. When the children are older and women choose to go back to research based fields, many feel they are playing catch-up and need to get reacquainted with research (Krefting, 2003).

A fourth proposed reason for the increased number of female faculty in full-time non-tenure track position compared to tenure-track faculty is the basic system which is in place to hire those faculty members. Males are still the gatekeepers at many colleges for a variety of different positions. They often make up a majority of hiring committees and have a significant say in who is allowed or accepted into the institution. Accepting females into institutions as tenure-track faculty may threaten the status quo of an organization and threaten the power of the male faculty. Men may be initially okay with a few women coming into an organization; however, they may not as be as accepting when a large number of women are trying to get in (Krymkoswki & Mintz, 2008).

Additionally, organizations tend to attract and privilege those who are similar to themselves (Krefting, 2003). One of the most common comments of a new hire is “will

they fit in here?" If a group of faculty members is primarily married men with children who have wives who do not work, it is easy to justify that a single female may not fit in to the family valued environment that exists. In addition to the male gatekeepers wanting to keep women out, the social networks of male applicants are often more significant than the female applicants. Males, on average, have much larger and powerful social networks than females and use the networks more effectively (Krymkoswki & Mintz, 2008). Finally, an argument can also be made that the hiring process rewards experiences traditionally dominated by males. Emphasis is often placed on research, rank, administrative experience; thus, all three areas that have been dominated by males (Harper et al., 2001).

Finally, research interests and publication may also have an impact on lower promotion rates. Research submitted by women was less likely to be accepted for publication than research submitted by males (Miller, Glick, & Cardinal, 2005). Some female Ph.D. students in Europe are still encouraged to use only their initials when submitting papers to avoid this possible bias (Elg & Jonnergard, 2003). Additionally, the bias against research by female authors may include bias against research on women's issues. Research that supports the current ideas and view is often more positively received by reviewers than research that goes against current ideas (Miller et al., 2005). This suggests that issues on inequality for women still goes against current ideas and would be more likely to be rejected. If these issues cannot be addressed to the masses, it is difficult for any changes to occur.

In addition to the increase of women in full-time non-tenure track positions, women also tend to be hired at lower faculty positions than their male colleagues. In 1991, women accounted for 15 percent of full professors, 28 percent of associate professors, 40 percent of assistant professors, and 46 percent of instructors and lecturers (West & Curtis, 2006). This number is an improvement from years past, but obviously, there is a long way to go. At the same time, only 58 percent of women faculty were full-time tenure-track, compared to 75 percent of the male full-time faculty.

The growth in the number women in faculty positions, both tenure-track and non-tenure, is a positive trend but needs to be examined closer to determine if any other trends are happening. Many fields still have a significant amount of male dominance. This means that in many cases, the increase in the overall rate of females entering academia could be a result of an increase in a few certain fields. Engineering, natural sciences, and business are still extremely male-dominated fields, with 94.6 percent, 83.9 percent, and 78.7 percent, respectively, of their faculty being male (Harper et al., 2001). Even though growth has occurred for women in academia, there are also negative trends. Women, in addition to being promoted less, leave the field in larger numbers than males (Queneau, 2006). This occurs for a variety of different reasons, including social isolation, family conflict, and powerlessness (Cummins, 2005).

As women enter the field, many often have mentor encouragement and a limited social network. These two factors help gain them entry in a department. As time goes on, these relationships may or may not grow. If the social network does not grow, this could lead to lower professional opportunities (Bradley, 2000). An additional pressure

on female faculty is a family situation. Women, more often than men, will either cut back or give up a career to take care of a family situation (Harris, 2009). At the same time, women are leaving the field voluntarily prior to receiving tenure (Gibson, 2006). As the number of women in the department decreases, the environment may start to change. A female may now be required to take on additional department service to make sure the female voice is heard.

Final issues that have an impact on females remaining in academia include work hostility and lack of promotion. If fewer women are employed within a department, it may be easier for those in higher positions to ignore issues that are important to women, such as maternity leave. Ignoring these issues may make women feel undervalued and may create a difficult work environment. Finally, lack of promotion or tenure may filter out additional female faculty once they reach the promotion phase. After all of these squeezing factors, a much smaller group of female faculty remain (Reybold & Alamia, 2008).

All of the preceding issues are compounded by the institutional and department climates. The perceptions, attitudes and expectations that define an institution are referred to as the "institutional climate" (Caplan, 1993). The institutional and departmental climate may vary greatly between departments and from school to school. The climate may also vary based on the status of the employee (Bronstein & Farnsworth, 1998, Caplan, 1993). Often, those that set the institutional climate are white males (Viers & Blieszner, 2004). Those with less power (e.g., women and minorities) have less chance to impact this climate. Additionally, institutional climate may be based on

patriarchal power structures, which are often incompatible with women's lives and work styles (Viers & Bliesznер, 2004). Investigating the institutional climate may have a direct impact on the experiences of women faculty.

Supporting Women Faculty

Though women face many barriers to their entrance and advancement in education, progress has been made. Many schools are implementing new programs and policies that benefit women (Acker & Armenti, 2004). These new programs include increased family programs and mentoring.

One of the most cited reasons for women leaving academia is work-life conflict (Acker & Armenti, 2004; Harris, 2009). A variety of new programs have been created to benefit women who have children. The first is increased maternity leave. The second is the freezing of the tenure clock. If women have a child, they are allowed to freeze the timeframe for the tenure process for a certain amount of time (Acker & Armenti, 2004). This allows women to take the time they need for their personal lives without being punished professionally.

However, even if schools and workplaces implement these programs, it may not be enough to encourage women to actually take advantage of them. Companies tout their family friendly policies without examining the impact on women who take advantage of them. For example, women who take advantage of the frozen tenure clock may be viewed by coworkers as undedicated to the job. It is important to note that just because programs are in place does not mean that it is enough to correct assumptions

about women in the workforce. Workplaces must encourage the use of these policies or cultural and gender values will remain the same.

Of the female faculty who remain, many cite mentoring as a critical tool in increasing job satisfaction, thereby encouraging women to remain in the field (Gibson, 2006). As many women feel like outsiders in academia, mentoring allows them to receive support from other female faculty members through a variety of means (Gibson, 2006). A variety of mentoring programs may be utilized to receive benefits. New faculty may be assigned to veteran faculty to provide support, information, and networking. A mentor and mentee can design the relationship to meet their own specific needs, including type of relationship, number of times and ways they meet, and what projects or items are discussed (Gibson, 2006).

Even though mentoring has the potential to provide many benefits to the participants, several issues do exist. One issue of mentoring relationships is the lack of women in higher positions in academia. Since women leave at increased rates, fewer women remain to mentor the new arrivals (Gibson, 2006). Additionally, participants will only receive benefits if they put time and effort into making the relationship work.

Women who are hired into faculty positions negotiate through academia in different ways than their male colleagues. Academia, like the military, uses an up or out promotion and tenure system (Harris, 2009). Those who successfully meet the requirements of the process are compensated with tenure. Those who are not able to navigate the process are forced to leave their position. Additionally, the types of research women choose to participate in may have a direct impact on the tenure process.

Controversial topics related to gender or other women's issues may be viewed negatively by other colleagues. In addition to tenure pressures, female faculty members often feel the pressure of tokenism (Harris, 2009). When women feel they are a token hire, they may face hostility from coworkers and decreased self-confidence.

History of Women in Sport

Sport is often viewed as a male domain, a place where boys become men (Anderson, 2002). This idea of sport as a male preserve has significant implications for women. If sports are a male domain, then the inclusion of women becomes illogical. This illogical nature of sport justifies the exclusion of women in high status roles (e.g. men's coaches, athletic directors). Therefore, when women do enter sport as these positions, they are seen as trespassers or unwelcome guests (Griffin, 1998; Lenskyj, 1986). The negative reaction of fans to women as football sideline reporters provides a clear example of this bias. Sport is often seen as reinforcing the gender differences between men and women. Images, practices, and organizational structures in sport, often creating the illusion that interest is sport is essentially male (Duncan, 1990). Sport magazines target male audiences with images of athletes in competition in football, hockey, and baseball. Those magazines targeted toward women focus on beauty rather than competition. These messages indicate that women are weak and men are strong (Fink & Kensicki, 2002). Before looking at the experiences of female sport management professors, it is important to examine the path of women and sport in history.

The role and history of women is sport has been constantly evolving and changing, often corresponding with changes in the United States overall. Women have

long been encouraged to be spectators and cheerleaders at men's sporting events; however, their participation has been an entirely different matter (Harry, 1995). Although many equate the evolution of women's sports with the passage Title IX, women have long participated in athletics in a variety of ways throughout American history. Prior to the colonization of the United States, Native American women participated in a variety of sporting activities, including religious ceremonies that required participants to dance for hours at a time. Passage into womanhood required girls to pass physical tests (Ogelsby, 1978). Early colonists participated in dances, fishing, and agricultural fairs which included races, games, and other activities. After numerous colonists came to the United States, a shift in the view people took toward physical activity occurred.

During the Nineteenth century, participation of women in sporting activities decreased dramatically (Cahn, 1994). Participation in sport was most often discouraged because it was considered unfeminine and dangerous to women (Cahn, 1994). Women were often discouraged from participating in any strenuous form of physical activity. Doctors at the time believed that women were too delicate for strenuous activity, citing potential damage to the reproductive organs (Cahn, 1994; Lopiano, 2000; Guttmann, 1991). It was also widely believed that women could not participate in strenuous activities for long periods of time. For example, the Olympics did not feature running events over 200 meters for women until the 1950s because of the fear of physical damage and injury to the athletes (Cahn, 1994; Lopiano, 2000).

In addition to the supposed health risks to women, as the roles of men and women were defined, women saw a reduction in the types of appropriate sporting activity (Cahn, 1994; Ogelsby, 1978). Women were increasingly viewed as the weaker sex. Men argued that they were not strong enough to participate in sport. Victorian women, who adhered to strict gender norms, participated in activities that reflected those ideals (Howell, 1982).

However, late in the Nineteenth century, sporting activity increased. Women attending Vassar began to form baseball, tennis, and croquet (Cahn, 1994). The arrival of the bicycle from Europe gave women a new freedom, though doctors still cautioned women against its use due to the possible damage to the reproductive organs (Lopiano, 2000). Also during the 1800s, country clubs offered women sports such as croquet and tennis (Guttman, 1991).

However, though physical activity was encouraged, competition in women's sport was strongly opposed, believing that to be a masculine quality (Lenskyj, 1986). Additionally, women who participated in sport often had to navigate issues of marginalization from the men that ran the leagues. Industrial leagues offered through the workplace sprang up in the early 20th century. They partnered sex and women's sports (Cahn, 1994). Basketball games required women to wear revealing uniforms. Those who did not meet cultural standards of beauty were often left off the team (Lenskyj, 1986).

Just as the entry of the United States into World War II changed the workforce in American, it also began to change sport in the United States as well. As men were

entering the service, women began taking their place in the factories, as well as on the playing field. The All-American Girls Baseball League (AAGBL) was formed in 1943 to replace Major League Baseball after it had been cancelled due to the war, creating one of the first professional sports opportunity for women (Gerber, Felshin, Berlin, & Wyrick, 1974).

The passage of Title IX, as previously discussed, play an integral role in advancing the opportunities for women in sport. The participation of females in college athletics is at one of their highest points ever (Acosta & Carpenter, 2010). The popularity of women's sports are seen at the high school level as well. In 2009-2010, the level of female high school athletes participating in sport was at its highest ever, with 3,172,637 female athletes participating in high school sanctioned sports (National Federation of State High School Associations).

In today's society, those who participate in sports obtain many benefits, including better health, increased self-confidence, and team building skills (Lopiano, 2000). Women and girls who participate in sport have specific benefits. Girls who participate in sports are half as likely to get pregnant, experience greater academic success, and graduate from college at higher rates than non-athletes (Lopiano, 2000).

Despite these benefits, women still face to issues of appropriate behavior and sporting choices. Sports that promote gender norms, such as beauty and grace (e.g., ice skating, gymnastics) are seen as appropriate options for female athletes, while those that promote completion, strength and violence (e.g., rugby, football) are not (Messner, Duncan, & Jensen, 1993). This value on traditional gender norms has lead to a new

issue. Women who ignore gender norms often face the stereotype of being labeled a lesbian. Understanding that we live in a largely homophobic society, the threat of being labeled a lesbian hangs over women like a cloud. Additionally, the lesbian stigma functions as a disciplining mechanism that controls women's behavior and bodies (Griffin, 1998; Lenskyj, 2003). In sports, the relationship between gender and sexuality is evident in narratives about female athletes. The "failure" to be meek, passive or beautiful in the course of physical action in sports is read like a rejection of femininity. Scholars researching women's sports have noted the common stereotype that all female athletes are lesbians (Cahn, 1994; Griffin, 1998; Krane, 2001; Lenskyj, 1986).

Women in Kinesiology and Sport Management

Sport management as an academic field has experienced large-scale growth within the past 25 years (Mahony, Mondello, Hums, & Judd, 2006). The number of programs in North America exceeded 200 by the year 2000 (Parkhouse & Pitts, 2001). Though there has be large growth in the sport management field, it does not mean that growth has been equal for men and women. Many fields remain a masculine domain. Sport itself is a masculine domain, so it stands to reason that sport science and kinesiology departments in academia are also. A masculine domain refers to a institutionalized culture that devalues the contributions of women (Brackenridge, Mutrie, & Choi, 2005).

As Title IX impacted the field of kinesiology and its departments, women in these departments often felt the wrath of their male counterparts for taking scarce resources. Women were often assigned larger teaching and service requirements for less

pay (Simeone, 1987). When examining all of the evidence, it is not difficult to understand why women often feel marginalized and insignificant in their various academic departments. Women face an added difficulty in the sport management field because they are facing two strong barriers. First, as previously discussed, academia is a male dominated field. Second, sport is a field also dominated by men and where masculinity is celebrated (Harry, 1995). Women entering the sport management field may face discrimination, and pressures from both academia and the sporting arenas as they are seen as outsiders.

The field of sport management has many of the same issues as other fields. First, sport is a male dominated arena (Harry, 1995). As previously noted, women were not encouraged to actively participate in sport until recently in history. In addition to the lack of encouragement for sport participation, women did not have as many avenues to participate (Gerber et al., 1974). It was not until the passage of Title IX women were afforded the same opportunities as men in college to participate in sport. Additionally, many women cite different reasons for participation in sport than men. Females often cite physical appearance and fitness as reasons for sport particiapation, while males cite competition and and friendship. Sport management combines several different areas in which women are marginalized: sport, higher education, and business. This combination forecasts that women will have different experiences than their male counterparts in sport management.

Though there are still difficulties for women in the field, many different professional orgainzations encourage women to discover new ways to network and

participate. Today, a variety of sport management professional associations exist for educators in academia. The North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM), the North American Society for the Sociology of Sport (NASSS), and the Sport and Recreation Law Association (SRLA) are three examples of professional associations focused on the development of specific areas of sport.

Theoretical Framework

Standpoint theory is the term adopted to describe feminist theories, which emphasize the importance of women's way of knowing (Harding, 1991; 2004). Feminist standpoint theory originated in the 1970s and 1980s with roots in Marxist philosophy. It focuses on the relationship between the constructions of knowledge and power (Harding, 2004). The theory works from the assumption that there is no single, objective truth. Therefore, gender is valued as an essential concept in research (Krane, 1994).

According to Tannen (1997), men and women are raised differently, which essentially provides them a different perspective from which they observe and understand social phenomenon. Due to these differing perspectives, women experience the environment in which they live much differently than men. Male hierarchy and dominance in our culture play a much different role in the development of women versus men. Here, women's value and opinions have often been undervalued of even ignored. It is often assumed that there is just one perspective: a male perspective (Gilligan, 1982). Sandra Harding (1991) sought to analyze the social construction of gender and its repercussions and ask questions that stem from those experiences of women.

Standpoint theory seeks to understand the world from the perspective of those who are oppressed. Feminist standpoint theory functions within three claims. The first tenet is that knowledge is socially situated (Harding, 1991; Krane, 2004). This tenet is separated into two components: knowledge is produced by social groups and the social location of the group helps to shape its knowledge. Accordingly, multiple truths are created by the different situations faced by members of different social groups (Krane, 2004). Marginalized groups develop an understanding from both the perspective of the oppressed and see the world as it is, though the eyes of the oppressor. The second tenet states that women share one or more essential properties that, in essence, make them who they are. The third and final tenet states that these features give women epistemic privilege over other groups (Potter, 2006).

A feminist perspective highlights women's issues from a standpoint that is difficult to find or completely invisible in traditional social science approaches (Hesse-Biber, 2007). It can also be argued that women's experiences provide a less distorted knowledge than men's experiences (Krane, 2001). Furthermore, men's experiences often disregard activities they attribute to women (i.e., housework, child care) and focus on certain activities (i.e., work in the public sector) attributed most often to men (Costa & Guthrie, 1994). Standpoint theory allows us to hear the voices of minority individuals who perceive the world in their own, unique way while rejecting the notion that there are universal truths. Thus, gender, class, and race shape each individuals understanding of the world (Humm, 1995). This approach to research attempts to understand the experiences of those who have suffered marginalization through their own words

(Krane, 2001). Examining these hidden perspectives provides new angles of inquiry and the creation of new research questions.

Standpoint theory rejects the notion that there are universal truths and asserts that the way individuals know the world depends on their own personal standpoint (Harding, 1991). Race, gender, and class, to name a few, help to shape an individual's understanding of the world. Since individuals have their own personal experiences, knowledge is formed based on these experiences. For example, those in higher education tend to think of it as more progressive than society at large. However, as demonstrated, the woman as "other" holds true in this setting (Campbell & Wasco, 2000). Therefore, women academics navigate the higher education environment differently than their male counterparts, creating different knowledge. This especially holds true when the power differential is extremely skewed. The subordinate group, in this case women academics, are likely to be invisible to the dominate group, and standpoint theory allows them an avenue to share their perceptions (Krane, 2001).

Standpoint theory also assumes that one single truth does not exist, but that "class, race, gender, and sexual orientation structure a person's understanding of reality" (Campbell & Wasco, 2000, p. 781). Standpoint theory allows the researcher to examine a phenomenon through the words of the oppressed (Krane, 2001). Feminist standpoint theory has been used to examine the experiences of women in a variety of fields, including sociology (van Wormer, 2009), natural sciences (Deboleena, 2008), and religion (Bowie, 1998). Additionally, feminist standpoint theory has been used to examine the experiences of women in higher education (Drury, 2010; Nilsson, 2005) and

sport (Dixon, 2009; Krane, 2001). As we seek to understand the experiences of a group that has been traditionally marginalized in academia and sport, we seek a theory to help illuminate the issues they may face. Because the personal experiences of current female sport management faculty were sought to be examined and understood, standpoint theory will serve as the theoretical framework for this study.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

This chapter discusses the appropriate methodology for this study. In order to accomplish this task, a discussion of the benefits and justifications of qualitative methodology for examining the experiences of female sport management professors takes place. Additionally, the research paradigms through which the study took place are also considered. Finally, the data collection process is scrutinized.

Qualitative Methodology

Qualitative methods are suitable for uncovering the meanings individuals create to explain their experiences (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Since the purpose of this dissertation is to determine what factors impact the experiences of female sport management professors and how they describe those experiences, the meanings these women place on their work experiences are critical. This dissertation was guided by two primary philosophical paradigms: interpretive and critical. Lincoln and Guba (1985) defined paradigms as "a systematic set of beliefs, together with their accompanying methods" (p. 15). The selection of paradigms is critical to the research process. Even though it may seem the use of two paradigms can be problematic, Guba and Lincoln (2005) found a careful pairing of paradigms show axiomatic elements can fit together and complement each other.

Interpretive Paradigm

Interpretivists feel there are many truths, where the world is constructed by each knower. In this paradigm, "individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work" (Creswell, 2007, p. 20). The goal is to look at the perspectives of the participants. In order to accomplish this goal, it is important for interaction to occur between the research and the participants (Creswell, 2007).

Critical Paradigm

The aim of critical paradigm is the "*critique and transformation* of the social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic, and gender structures that constrain and exploit humankind" (Guba & Lincoln, 2004). Advocacy and activism are concepts key to the paradigm. The critical paradigm is based on the belief that power influences truth (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). Additionally, knowledge is a series of insights based on history that may change as time passes (Guba & Lincoln, 2004). Creswell (2007) states feminist research approaches "center and make problematic women's diverse situations and the institutions that frame those situations" (p. 25). Social justice for women and other oppressed groups is a common theme. Critical theory examines the constraints placed on them by race, class and gender. As we are seeking to understand the view of participants because of their gender, critical theory is a valid lens.

Research Design

Methods of research design are dependent on both the research paradigms and the purpose of the investigation. Case study research is a qualitative approach where the investigator examines a bounded system (a case) over time using data collection

(Creswell, Hanson, Clark, & Morales, 2007). The case study approach examines the case within its social context, taking into account the reality of those both inside and outside the case (Stake, 2005). This type of research is popular in a variety of fields, including psychology, medicine, sociology, and political science (Creswell et al., 2007; Yin, 2009). Case study analysis is selected because it allows the researcher to conduct an in-depth examination of one or several instances of a contemporary phenomenon (Stake, 2005; Yin, 2009).

Stake (2005) identifies three types of case studies: intrinsic, instrumental, and multiple. The first type of case study is intrinsic case studies, or those undertaken to gain a better understanding of a particular case (Stake, 2005). Theory building is not the purpose. The intrinsic case study examines the case in its' own specific situation, for the unique value it has. The second type of case study, instrumental, is utilized to examine and provide insight to an issue (Stake, 2005). The case itself is only a secondary interest, assisting the researcher in understanding another phenomenon. Multiple case studies are the final category described by Stake (2005). Multiple case studies examine several instrumental cases to examine a larger phenomenon or population. Cases selected may not necessarily be similar. They are chosen because supposition suggests understanding those specific cases will lead to a better understand about a larger issue. In this instance, a instrumental case study was reasoned to be the most suitable.

Data Collection

When selecting a research methodology, it is important to note that research methods are directly connected to the research paradigms (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

While utilizing a feminist lens, interpretive and critical theories can access marginalized voices, and qualitative methodologies are fitting for these theories. Additionally, standpoint theory seeks to analyze the social construction of gender and its consequences on participants, asking questions that originate from the experiences of women (Krane, 2001). As we seek to understand the experiences of women, qualitative design would be appropriate. Qualitative research methodology provides women the opportunity to discuss and describe the experiences in detail.

A qualitative in-depth interview methodology was selected for this study. Interviewing as a data gathering tool involves interaction in a question and answer session between two or more people (Fontana & Frey, 2005). In-depth interviews were selected because it "allows the feminist researcher to access the voices of those who are marginalized in a society" (Hesse-Biber, 2007, p. 118). It is important to get at those voices, because as discussed previously, the marginalized are often not allowed to be heard. Therefore, face-to-face interviews allow researchers to access hidden voices (Hesse-Biber, 2007). Furthermore, selecting in-depth interviews is directly related to feminist standpoint theory. As the researcher seeks to understand the standpoint of those who are studied and hear the silenced voices of women, in-depth interviews are an effective way to meet this goal.

While attempting to uncover the hidden voices, three different interview strategies may be utilized: structured, semi-structured, or unstructured. These three strategies follow a continuum of flexibility, from the least amount to the greatest. In structured interviews, participants are asked a pre-established series of questions.

Participants are asked the same questions in the same order. The format of the questions and interviews allow little flexibility in how the questions are answered and often include a set of fixed answers, such as many, some, few, or none (Hesse-Biber, 2007). A benefit of this method of interviews are that the interviews are consistent. One drawback to this method is that the interviewer does not have the ability to expand on questions or gain additional information during the interview (Fontana & Frey, 2005). Semi-structured and unstructured interviews allow the researcher more flexibility during the interview process. Semi-structured interviews allow the interviewer to create an interview guide with questions or topics they would like to have discussed (Hesse-Biber, 2007). This method of interview allows the researcher control over the interview, but allows for adjustment and clarification during the interview process. When using the unstructured interview method, the researcher has a basic interview plan in mind. However, the direction of the interview is largely controlled by the participants (Hesse-Biber, 2007). When the interview is controlled by the interviewee, the interview may lose the chance to ask certain questions and miss out on potential information.

When selecting an interview protocol, it is important to review the research goals. Since the purpose of this study is to develop a comprehensive understanding of how female faculty members in sport management departments describe their experiences, a less structured approach is deemed appropriate. The researcher has a set of issues and questions she is interested in examining, so a semi-structured interview protocol will be implemented.

A semi-structured interview procedure was created for the participants (Appendix A). Questions focus on experiences during the course of their academic teaching career. Additionally, a demographic survey was also designed and distributed to participants (Appendix B). Before participants were contacted, the research proposal and accompanying research questions were submitted to the Institutional Review Board at Texas A&M University. Once the proposal was approved, participants were contacted by an email invitation (Appendix C). The email included the purpose of the study, research methodology, and methods to maintain participant confidentiality. Once faculty members agreed to participate, a date for a campus visit and face-to-face interviews was established. The demographic questionnaire and interview questions were sent to each participant prior to the interview. Face-to-face interviews were conducted either on campus at the University in the participant's office or at the faculty member's home, based on their preference. All interviews lasted between 60 and 120 minutes. Each participant was asked the same questions; however, different probes were asked based on participants' responses. With the permission of each participant, all interviews were recorded. Participants were assured that at any time during the interview process they could refuse to answer questions or end the interview entirely. Demographic information was collected during the interview process for the purpose of describing the sample.

Participants

The women selected to participate in this study are either tenured or tenure-track faculty at a University in the Midwest. The specific criteria for participation in this

study include: full time women professors who were tenured or on the tenure-track and currently teaching sport management classes. This particular university was selected due to the significant history of Sport Management at the University and the number of women faculty in the sport management department available to interview. The list of women meeting these requirements was generated by examining the faculty section of the University's website and by sending a brief email detailing the purpose of my research and my need of participants to a colleague at that institution. Five female faculty members were identified from this process, though only four elected to participate.

All of the participants self-identified as White women. The participants' age ranged from 29 to 61 years of age with 42.25 years of age as the mean (SD = 15.52). In terms of academic experience, they had a mean of 12.75 (SD = 10.14) years of college teaching, with a range of 3 to 22 years. Two of the participants are tenured, while two are at different stages in the tenure process. Three of the women have never been married, while one is married. However, one participant was engaged at the time of the interview and one is in a long term relationship. Only one of the participants has any children.

Data Analysis

After the interviews were conducted, each interview was transcribed verbatim and analyzed by the researcher alone to better ensure familiarity and connection with the data. Furthermore, completing your own transcriptions "provides an opportunity to get immersed in the data, an experience that usually generates emergent insights" (Patton,

2002, p. 441). A pseudonym was selected by each participant and used throughout the study to ensure confidentiality.

Following transcription, inductive analysis was used through the data analysis, while the researcher looked for recurring words or themes (Patton, 2002). According to Thomas (2006) inductive analysis "refers to approaches that primarily use detailed readings of raw data to derive concepts, themes, or a model through interpretations made from the raw data by an evaluator or researcher" (p. 238). Inductive analysis allows findings to emerge from the themes inherent in raw data (Thomas, 2006). Consistent with inductive analysis, the interviewer listened to the interviews multiple times through the data analysis process in an effort to gain the perspective of each participant. Additionally, the interviews were read in their entirety several times. The interview transcripts were analyzed individually and as a group, looking for themes to emerge (Fontana & Frey, 2005). After the researcher became familiar with the interviews, each interview was broken down into individual units. Units have two characteristics: heuristic and must be able to stand alone (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Heuristic units are "aimed at some understanding or some action that the inquirer needs to have or to take" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 345). Secondly, a unit must be small and able to stand on its own. This means a reader must be able to interpret the unit without the broad context of additional information from the interview. Units may be as short as one sentence or as long as a paragraph (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Once units were identified, each unit was printed on a 4" x 6" notecard. After the notecards were created, the researcher placed each unit into a category. The task of categorizing is to bring together those units that

relate to the same content and to create rules that describe category properties (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Research Trustworthiness

It is important in qualitative research, just as in quantitative, to ensure the trustworthiness of the results. Qualitative research is unique; therefore, different criteria are used to determine trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Each aspect of qualitative trustworthiness can be related to common quantitative measures: credibility, transferability, dependability, conformability.

Credibility

Credibility can be likened to internal validity. The function of credibility is to show that the findings are of quality. Several different research methods exist to establish credibility. The following methods were utilized in the proposed study:

Peer Debriefing. Lincoln and Guba (1985) define a debriefer as "a noninvolved professional peer with whom the inquirer(s) can have a no-holds-barred conversation at periodic intervals" (p. 283). Utilizing a peer debriefer provides several benefits. The first is to expose the interviewer to different questions and clarify interpretations (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The second benefit is to test working hypotheses as they emerge. The third benefit is the opportunity to develop and test the next steps in process (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The fourth, and final benefit, of debriefing is that it allows the interviewer the chance to clear their mind that may be clouding the process.

Reflexive Journal. In the qualitative research process, the researcher serves as the inquiry instrument. Therefore, it is important to review the biases and thoughts of

the researcher. Since the researcher is human, personal ideas and opinions will enter into the research process. A reflexive journal provides the opportunity for the researcher to document personal thoughts and ideas before and after each interview. I kept a reflexive journal throughout the research project, documenting my thoughts, feelings, and experiences in each interview.

Member Checks. One of the most crucial techniques for ascertaining credibility is the member check. Member checks involve testing data, categories, interpretations, and conclusions with members of the groups from which the data was originally collected (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). If a researcher asserts the data adequately represents the realities of participants, they must be given a chance to verify those statements. Member checks can include providing participants with interview transcripts and allowing them to make clarifications and changes. Through member checks, participants were able to clarify any statements that they wished.

Transferability

Transferability is akin to external validity. It allows the reader to transfer the findings of one study to another (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Thick description was utilized to ensure transferability. Even though every effort was used to ensure transferability, it is the responsibility of the reader to take what information they can and transfer it to another setting.

Dependability

Dependability can be compared to reliability. Due to the fluid and changing nature of interpretivist inquiry, it is important to justify all changes that occur during the

research process. Explaining the rational for methodological changes that occur during the study helps establish dependability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Confirmability

Confirmability in qualitative research is similar to objectivity in quantitative research. Lincoln and Guba (1985) argue it is impossible for any research to be completely objective, nor should it be. A confirmability audit consists of keeping a reflexive journal, personal research notes, and developmental information.

Personal Statement

When using qualitative research, it is important to remember the testing instrument is the researcher themselves. Therefore, reflexivity is a critical component to the research. Hesse-Biber (2007) defines reflexivity as the "process through which a researcher recognizes, examines, and understands how his or her own social background and assumptions can intervene in the research process" (p. 129). In response to this, it is important to look at my own experiences that brought me to this point in my academic and professional career and examine what impact they play in my research perspectives.

Many of my earliest memories involve sports or education. My mother was and is one of the greatest influences in my life. As both an educator and avid sports fan, she instilled in me the value of learning and the love of sport. From a very early age, I have memories of helping my mom with projects for her classroom, including cutting letters for bulletin boards and testing student activities. Early activities for my brother and I included golf outings with our parents, playing at the softball complex, and attending various Nebraska football parties. In all of these instances, my mother was not only a

spectator, she was an active participant. I learned very early in my life that it was acceptable for females to participate in sports and to be good at them.

Even though my mother made me feel that it was okay to be a female sport fan and active participant, I had many different experiences that demonstrated quite the opposite. My father encouraged both my brother and I to participate in sports, but not always the same sport. Golf was acceptable for us both, but when I wanted to play recreation football in the third grade, he told me girls could not play football because it was too dangerous. This experience was not limited to my youth. In high school, two of my female teammates and I were set to begin a round golf when a group of four older gentlemen insisted they be allowed to play through. I pointed out that with only three in our group we were bound to move faster, and we would quickly be on our way. After calling me "little lady" in the most condescending tone I have ever heard, the gentlemen again insisted they be allowed to play through, making a reference to the fact they were certainly much better golfers than we could ever be. I told them if someone could outdrive me, they were more than welcome to play through. After insisting "ladies first", my teammates and I were quickly on our way, leaving the four gentlemen starring at us back on the tee box. These two instances were certainly not the only times I have been made to feel my passion for sports made me strange or different.

My road to a career in academia and sport management is somewhat long and complicated. I obtained my bachelors degree in finance from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln (UNL). Even this early in my experiences in higher education, I was very aware I was different from many of my colleagues. As a female in the College of

Business Administration and specifically finance classes, I realized females were significantly outnumbered by male colleagues in the majority of my classes. After realizing a career in personal finance was no longer my goal and a discussion with my mom about what I was passionate about, I decided to pursue my master's degree in sport management. At this point, teaching was not even remotely in my career plans. However, I took a teaching assistant position to help cover my tuition and found something I was passionate about. As I continued teaching, I began to realize a career as a sport management professor was a new direction and career path. I found a career as a sport management faculty member combined my passion for education and the sporting realm. Luckily, as I was beginning to discover this passion, I had a female professor who took an interest in my professional development and encouraged me to pursue this career path.

Throughout my education and teaching career, I have noticed on numerous occasions the role my gender has played. A variety of class discussions at different levels of my education have brought up the use of quotas in the hiring process. Male classmates consistently express frustration for the benefit they feel female applicants receive. This attitude makes me feel that I need to justify why I was hired or selected over other applicants. When I have spoken up to discuss this concern, I have often been silenced and told I am just too sensitive and am taking things the wrong way.

In addition to my own experiences as a student, I have also had experiences as a professor which emphasize the idea that being female matters. On more than one occasion I have had male students blow off my advice and teaching because I was a

female. I had a male student admit at the end of a semester that at first he did not think he would learn much in class because I was a "chick". I often have male students remark that I know a lot about sports for a girl. This attitude is something I have to fight against every day in class in order to continually prove my competence. I have had my sexuality openly questioned by students, something that does not happen to male colleagues.

Many times throughout my pursuit of a doctoral degree, I have felt unappreciated and undervalued. Though this is a common feeling for all doctoral students, many times I felt it was because I was a woman. Through discussions with colleagues both at Texas A&M University and at other schools across the country, I came to know that I am not alone in that feeling. When myself or other females attempted to do something about these feelings, we were pegged as too sensitive, being told it was all in our heads. As I completed this process, I found it extremely rewarding to discuss and compare experiences with other female professors. I quickly learned that what I was feeling was not unique. In fact, it seemed to be more the norm. Although it was frustrating to know that these experiences still happen, it was reassuring to know that others have lived through them and come out the other end a strong and productive professional.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Overview

This investigation has provided an opportunity to examine the experiences of tenured or tenure-track women faculty members in a sport management department at a University in the Midwest. This chapter discusses the overall themes and issues that were discussed by the four participants. These themes include institutional and departmental climate, marginalization, and career support. However, before the examination of these themes takes place, it is important to first discuss the path each participant took through life to ultimately reach their current faculty position.

Path to Current Position

Each participant had a very different path to their current career position as a sport management faculty member. Standpoint theory suggests that individual experiences help shape a person's view on life and determines how they interpret various situations (Harding, 1991). Due to this, it is important to briefly examine the unique path each participant took to their current job. In addition to their personal career paths, a discussion of how each participant learned of the job opening will be conducted.

Ashley. Ashley participated in a variety of different sports growing up and always had a love for the atmosphere that accompanies it. However, she was never interested in coaching. Each of her degrees was related to sport in some way. Before

entering academia, she worked in the industry for several years. Her first academic position was that of a lecturer and was then hired as an assistant professor.

She learned about the position that she currently holds from the person that held it prior to her. The previous professor encouraged Ashley to apply for the opening. "She put me in touch with some of the people here, and um, they had posted the job and so I applied and was lucky enough to get that position."

Alice. Alice also had a broad background of sport participation. Her undergraduate degree was not focused on sport management. However, she did go to graduate school anticipating that she was going to coach. She worked as a coach as both a grad student and later full time as an assistant coach. After realizing that coaching was not for her, she took a job outside of both sport and academia for a year before she returned to school to earn her graduate degrees.

Just like Ashley, Alice learned about the job opening from the person who created the opening. In fact, Alice ran into that professor at a conference and during a casual conversation was asked if she had applied for the job. This chance meeting was extremely significant, as Alice had not seen the job advertised and was not aware of the opening. Alice was able to get her resume to a member of the search committee at the conference. This resulted in her securing an interview, and was later offered the job.

Connie. Connie started as a college athlete, noting that really all she cared about through college was her sport. She received a master's degree and coached during that time, first as a graduate assistant and then as an assistant coach. After realizing her

passion was sport business, she decided to pursue a PhD. Even though she had worked as a coach, she did not desire to have a long career as a coach.

Connie learned about the job opening in the most conventional way. She learned of the open position through a professional listserv. She originally applied for the position because the town where the University was located had an possible employment for her husband.

Elaine Janes. Elaine Janes was also an athlete, continuing to participate in sports through college. She worked and coached in public schools before realizing that her passion was sport organizations rather than coaching. Additionally, she also worked in broadcasting and advertising before returning academia. She returned to academia to earn her degrees with the hopes of becoming an athletic director before she switched her focus to academia.

Elaine Janes also heard about the job in a more conventional manner. While at a conference, Elaine Janes was directed to the job announcement displayed at a conference by a mentor. Her mentor encouraged her to apply for the job. Without this encouragement, Elaine Janes might not have applied for the job, as she did not initially think she had a chance at getting the job.

Even though each faculty member had a very different journey to their current academic position, one constant among the group was the love of and participation in sport. Physical activity was a constant fixture in each person's life, through either participation as an athlete, employment as a coach, or both. Additionally, Elaine Janes and Ashley both cited the environment of sport organizations as enjoyable.

Institutional and Departmental Climate

The preceding section addressed the path each faculty member took to their current career position. Even though this information helps provide context to their journeys, it does not provide information about the current environment of both the department and the institution at the University. The institutional and departmental climate are often significant factors in the overall work environment experienced by employees (Caplan, 1993). Additionally, in accordance with feminist standpoint theory, the location of a social group helps form its knowledge (Krane, 2004). As the University is the location were the participants work, it is critical to examine its climate, both at the institutional and the departmental levels.

Institutional Climate

The current presence of strong women at the University as a whole provided additional insight to the perceived opportunities for women. Ashley noted a former school director and current president were both female. She felt that these women helped pave the way for her and others and paved the way for her own success. In fact, she noted her opportunities were wide open at this particular University.

> I think it probably depends on the institutions here. At our University, I feel we have an enormous amount of opportunities. We do have a lot of opportunities to be on committees, you know, and be division heads and those types of things.

The school did have opportunities for women to advance in the chain of command, but many of the leadership positions were held by males. This is important to note, as many institutional policies are set by white males (Viers & Bliesznер, 2004).

However, even though many of the leadership positions were men, Ashley felt that there was support for female faculty.

> Our division chair is male, our school director is male, the dean of our college is male. They are all very supportive. They don't try to usurp what I have said or say why don't you consider this. They are like, if you are in a situation I will back you up.

Since the structure of the institution is set by those in power, it is important that those in control set a climate that is compatible with the issues that impact women.

Department Climate

Though the climate of the institution is important, the departmental climate may impact the experiences of women even more, as most faculty spend a significant amount of time in their own departments. As discussed in Chapter III, one justification for selecting the University as a case study was due to the long and robust history of sport management and the substantial number of female faculty employed in the department. These characteristics provide a unique environment; therefore, it is important to evaluate what impact, if any, this had own the experiences of the participants.

The strong academic culture was noted by several faculty members as an attractive aspect of the program when interviewing for their current positions. Connie learned that the program was one of the first sport management programs in the United States. When Alice applied for the job, she looked at the different specializations that the department had. She noted that it was one of the few sport management programs at the time that emphasized the social science aspect of sport. The program contained

elements of sport sociology and sport psychology. Elaine Janes also stated that the academic prestige of the department drew her to the position. She was aware that faculty presented at the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM) and had seen some of their published articles in the *Journal of Sport Management* (JSM). In fact, she was so impressed by the department that she did not believe that she even had a chance to be hired.

In addition to overall prestige of the program, Connie was impressed with how many faculty members overall. In addition to having a large department, the department had a strong focus on diversity. Many of the faculty members noted the diversity of the department staff when they were hired. When Alice was hired, the department was almost all female.

> One of the interesting things about teaching here is that we have a lot of women on faculty. When I was hired here, we joked that hiring a White male would be bringing in a minority. Which, you know, no sport management programs particularly at that time in the early 90s was like that.

Elaine Janes also discussed the diversity of the program when she interviewed for her position:

> And then when I came to the interview, it was a very diverse program. In fact, it was heavily female and they were, and they embrace diversity, they embraced gender equity. I liked the direction that the program had gone and the way it was going.

Though diversity was mentioned as a benefit by many of the faculty, it was not the final determination on accepting the job for Elaine Janes; however, the comfortable atmosphere created by the diversity of the department was very attractive. As Krefting (2003) organizations often attract those who are similar. A diverse environment provides greater chances to find someone similar to you.

Ashley was also impressed by the number of female faculty members in the department at the time of her hiring. She stated that the department was extremely unique. In fact, she had never been in a sport management department that had as many women faculty members as the University did.

In addition to the focus on diversity, each of the participants noted that the reputation of the women who were working in the environment was also a significant benefit to the department. Elaine Janes felt that the women in the department were well know in the field, working to develop NASSM, starting JSM, and started the sport management accreditation process. She referred to the "heavy hitters" in the department. Ashley discussed the opportunity to learn from such accomplished women faculty.

> The opportunity to be around these women specifically was amazing and a great opportunity. Just the fact that I can learn from them. And, you know, they are so productive that I felt that it kind of makes you want to be productive. I have a lot to live up to because these people aren't really slacking.

Finally, participants noted that they field support from their current colleagues in the department as well. This is a critical factor to note as many women feel they do not

receive support from their departments (Gibson, 2006). Ashley noted that she was "definitely support by my colleagues." Additionally, she felt that "people really want you to succeed. It is not a me or you type of atmosphere. It is how do we all succeed, because that just enhances the program." Alice also felt that she had the support of the department as she began a new, controversial line of research. She was told as long as her work was publishable, it did not matter what the topic was. This feeling of support was critical, especially when researching a controversial topic (Miller et al., 2005). However, Connie noted that there were a group of male colleagues that always went to lunch together without any of the female faculty. This led her to wonder why it was just the men and question their openness to women in the department.

The number of female faculty, the departmental atmosphere of diversity and inclusion, and the reputation of faculty were three factors that were important to each of the participants. These factors play a significant role in recruiting female faculty. First, strong academic credentials will draw good applicants. A warm, diverse environment appears to attract women faculty to your department.

Overall, several different factors were credited with drawing female faculty to the University. Quality programs and personnel were cited as a strong benefit to a program. Additionally, the culture of the department was a significant factor in job selection. Finally, it was important to note that even if the department had all of the desired features, it was important that the university also had similar characteristics.

Marginalization

As discussed in Chapter II, women often experience marginalization when they do not ascribe to gender norms in both academia and sport. As the conversations took place, it because clear that at various times throughout their career, each of the participants had experienced some form of marginalization based on different categories assigned to them, including but not limited to gender.

Assumptions and Stereotypes

One factor discussed in the interviews was that the participants were well aware of the marginalized status that women often have in both academia and sport. A token is a demographic group that has less than 15 percent in an organization (Kanter, 1977). The breakdown of the faculty in the sport management department at University was roughly 50 percent male and 50 percent female so none of the participants could specifically be viewed as a token faculty member; however, faculty were clearly aware this was a unique characteristic of their University. Therefore, they often thought about other faculty being viewed as tokens and expressing relief that they did not have to deal with that issue very often.

Ashley mentioned it was extremely beneficial that she was not the only female faculty member. She discussed other institutions where you would have the "token" female. To illustrate her point, she mentioned a colleague who was the only female faculty member in another sport management department. "That would be a tremendous burden to not have the female support system. You are the only one there. I just think that would be very weird." However, even though the department has a fairly even

distribution of males and females, she did have an experience where she was marginalized in the hiring process by a male colleague.

> It's ironic because when I was hired there was another candidate. I ended up getting the position and he did not. It created this awful dynamic. He accused me that the only reason I got the job was because I was a girl. I thought it was very ironic because there are so many females, there is no reason to hire me just for that.

Though Ashley did not feel like she was a token female faculty member, she did feel that she had to continually prove herself to the male students in her classes. She felt that "some people still think that men naturally know way more about sports than women and that they just aren't as interested." As she went against the traditional gender norms, she found that she had to defend her knowledge, an issue many women face when discussing issues not typically associated with females (Sprague & Massoni, 2005). She discussed dealing with these issues.

> Around students, I find myself having to prove myself to some of the male students. I do know a lot about sport, and I probably know more, except the useless statistics that no one will ever care about or need in life.

To help combat this issue, she makes sure that she is up to date on current events, mostly by watching *Sports Center* and ESPN every day before class. She also mentions that she has been challenged by male students until she is able to put them in their place.

> They are like, oh yeah, do you know this person and when I know, they are like, oh. It is always kind of fun when you school one of the guys in class because

> they come in there think that oh, it is going to be easy because I can just name drop people or talk about this sport and she won't have a clue what I am talking about.

Though she does watch *Sports Center* to make sure that she is ready for class, she also noted that it was a show she enjoyed. Additionally, since she was up on current events, show could incorporate those issues into classroom discussion.

When discussing the topic, it is clear that these issues happen primarily with male students rather than female students. When discussion the possible reasons for this, Ashley was a little unsure. She thought perhaps some of the male students were not used to "strong females tell them this is how it is going to be and you are going to listen or you are not going to do well in this class." However, she did believe that students would say things that they would not have said to a male teacher. Abel and Metzler (2007) also found this phenomenon, stating that student attitudes shape their perceptions of male and female professors in the classroom.

In addition to gender, several participants felt they were marginalized for other reasons besides gender. As noted by standpoint theory, people have more than one standpoint (e.g., gender, religion, sexual orientation) and those standpoints interact and different standpoints moved to the forefront based on the situation (Harding, 2001). Ashley, Elaine Janes, and Alice all mentioned that at times they felt that their age was a detriment to them. It is interesting to note that both Elaine Janes and Alice felt that being older was a detriment at times, while Ashley felt that being younger was. The

older women felt that students often thought they were out of the loop, while Ashley noted that students often did not take her seriously because of her youth.

Alice also noted that her sexuality provided her with unique issues while dealing with students. She often wondered when discussing stereotypes of lesbians if the students were thinking of her. Often times she had to determine if she would come out to her classes while teaching. She mentioned that she did not proclaim her sexuality in class, but she had to determine whether she would mention her partner. She often decided whether or not to come out to the class based on "the resistance level in the classroom". Additionally, she felt that students often viewed her as a stereotype when it came to lesbians in sport, as they saw her failing to meet certain gender norms (Griffin, 1998).

The subject matter of the classes tended to amplify the stereotypes of women that students came in to classes with. For example, those who taught classes such as marketing and finance, reported less resistance from students that professors that taught socially charge classes like sociology. Many times this is due to students feeling that a teacher has an agenda (Abel & Maltzer, 2007). Though many times the class material is cited as the polarizing issue, both Ashley and Alice felt that they were treated different because of their gender or sexual orientation when discussing that subject material. Both felt that students looked at them like they had an agenda when teaching the class. Ashley stated "it is hard in a gender class because they think it is going to be all girls all the time, super femi-nazi coming at you."

Finally, Alice felt that her male colleagues and students often did not think about these issues of gender in the classroom. This may be partially due to the large number of male students in the sport management classes, accounting for as much as 90 percent of the class at times. Additionally, she spoke to privilege.

> I think the women are conscious of it and I think the men aren't. We talk about privilege in class, in sport and gender class, and you know, that old people who are privileged often don't recognize it. And that is very true for a lot of the men.

This statement speaks directly to feminist standpoint theory, where the views of women are different from men because of the marginalization of their gender. Finally, she felt that students would have perceived the issues differently when presented by her, as opposed to being presented by a male professor.

Work-life Conflict

Female faculty members report higher levels of work-life conflict than their male colleagues (Acker & Armenti, 2004; Harper et al., 2001). One issue that affects women in a unique way is the decision to have children. Harris discusses the different issues that women consider when deciding when and if to have children (2009). The first issue is the decision to have children at all. As mentioned in Chapter II, only 29 percent of all faculty that have children are women (Harper et al., 2001). Of the four women interviewed, only one had children.

Once a female faculty member has decided that she wants to have children, timing becomes a large issue. Three issues with timing involve pregnancy during the pre-tenure time frame, pregnancy during the school year, and delaying pregnancy until

after tenure is earned. The first issue is pregnancy during the pre-tenure years. Faculty are given a certain time frame to obtain tenure. If a female faculty member becomes pregnant during that time frame, they may lose time in the tenure process. To combat this, some schools give women the opportunity to freeze the tenure clock for pregnancy (Harris, 2009). The second issue with timing is the necessity to take maternity leave during the school year. If schools are not willing to accommodate a woman's pregnancy, she is limited in the time she can become pregnant. This concern supports the issue that having family friendly policies in place is not enough (Acker & Armenti, 2004). The intuitional culture must be one that encourages employees to take advantage of the programs without fear of repercussions. Many women attempt to become pregnant so that they will give birth during the summer months. The third issue is to delay pregnancy until after tenure is achieved. However, for some women, this means they will become mothers much later than they would prefer. These were issues that were discussed by Ashley. She discusses the timing options and the potential reaction of the University.

> My fiancé and I do want to have a family one day. Are they going to be open to the fact that I might get pregnant during the school year and may need to be gone for a few weeks? Are they going to be okay with that and understanding or it is going to be are you sure. I don't want that hostile environment.

Ashley also discussed waiting until she received tenure to begin having children. Ideally she would want to wait to have tenure until she had received tenure. However, she still had four years remaining in the tenure process, and that would make her older than was

her ideal to become a parent for the first time. However, she did mention the possibility of getting pregnant in September so they baby would be born in May.

Even though Ashley was discussing options for the timing for children, she perceived that the department would be flexible when she finally chose to have children. She said, "so many of our faculty have children and it is great that people have kids and they can balance that." She added, "If someone needs to leave at 2 in the afternoon to go pick up their child, we can get our classes scheduled that way."

Several of the participants noted examples of those who were not able to find the balance between work and their personal lives. Alice remembered telling a mentor that she did not want to become them. "They were the perfect model of what I never wanted to do. I mean just an absolute workaholic." She wanted her life to be about more than just work. However, she mentioned that this often took a conscious effort to maintain balance. In fact, she often set her work schedule around her partner's work schedule. "If my partner worked on a Saturday, I would make sure that all of my work done that day. When both were off took advantage of that time." Alice made sure to work the important aspects of her life, such as exercise and walking her dogs, were put into her schedule.

Achieving tenure had a direct impact on how faculty members reported their level of work-life conflict. Faculty members who had already achieved tenure reported lower levels of work-life conflict. Those faculty members who were still on the tenure track reported higher levels of work-life conflict. Alice felt that achieving work-life

balance was much easier to achieve post-tenure. However, she hoped that she did not wait until she received tenure to get that balance.

Elaine Janes also felt little stress due to work-life conflict. She was very careful to mention that this had not always been the case. She recalled many weekends in her office before she was tenured. "Well pre-tenure I think I may have. I worked a lot at home and I came in to work to the office every Saturday and almost every Sunday." However, now, she rarely comes in to the office on the weekends. She plans her work so that she doesn't have much to do on the weekends because "I have a fun life."

As mentioned, faculty who had not received tenure we more likely to report a work-life conflict. Connie specifically mentioned difficulty in maintaining a work-life balance.

> Yeah, I do. Especially I think because your work is never done at this point. That is something I think a lot of people don't understand. Even if you have all of your grading done, you could always be researching and there are always a few projects that are hanging over your head and because of that you really can't get away unless you really designate your time, like this is my off time and this is my own time. I tried that and it didn't work. If you have something you need to get done, you have to get it done. Even if you are socializing and having family time it is always in the back of your mind. That is draining.

Even though Ashley had not received tenure, she did not feel as much pressure or work-life conflict as Connie.

> I think I am really good about that. I spend my time with my friends, and my family, and my fiancé. I don't spend 8 or 9 hours in the office and then come home and spend another 5 or 6 doing work. I mean, I get my stuff done, but I take time to celebrate the holidays and I am planning a wedding. All of that stuff but I don't feel all encompassed with work.

Though all believed a balance could be achieved through effort and diligence, each participant reported working from home at various times. Alice did a variety of tasks at home in the evenings.

> I will work in the evening. My brain tends to not function very well at night. But I do answer the emails, get caught up and enter things in the grade book, stuff like that that is busywork but still need to get things done.

Ashley also worked at home on occasion, working on grading or going over data while watching television. Even though Elaine Janes was extremely determined to not bring work home, sometimes it happened. However, she was not pleased when this occurred.

> I tried to plan things out so I don't have much to do at home. I don't want a lot to do at home. I had to take stuff home this weekend and you would think somebody had asked me to go to Alaska.

One factor all faculty agreed on was that clear tenure guidelines resulted in fewer issues of stress and conflict. Though the University is not an R1 institution, faculty are still required to publish in order to obtain tenure. The expected publication guidelines are one quality publication per year. By knowing the guidelines, the pressure was somewhat reduced as the mystery was taken away. Alice noted:

> The people I see that are constantly battling that expectation, that is really stressful. So I totally understand that pre-tenure depending on all sorts of things, um, that can be very stressful and really difficult.

Though the tenure guidelines at University were relatively clear, that was not always the case. Alice also spoke of a time when she was visiting another campus and speaking with their faculty about the tenure process. When she asked how much they were required to publish for tenure, the answer she constantly heard was "more." That was a situations she never wanted to be in.

Old Boys' Network

In the world of business and sport, the presence of an "old boys' network" is often seen as a detriment to women and minorities who are trying to enter the field. When asked if she saw any barriers that hinder women in sport management careers, and Ashley felt that "the old boys' network is still very strong and powerful". Connie also noted the presence of the old boys' network. She spoke to the importance of networking contacts while looking for careers. She felt that men often had an advantage, though she did not believe it necessarily had to do with sexism. She felt the advantage came from the old boys club.

Alice also felt the pressure of the old boys' network, especially in regards to her sexuality. She felt that many times she was ignored because of her own sexuality and the research she did involving lesbians in sport. She stated:

> I think part of it is because I am a lesbian and we are talking sport and some men

> want nothing to do with it. Like I said, there are a number of men, you know, they good old boys, there is a number of men that really want nothing to do with me.

Ashley felt that the old boys' network not only impacted her, but her students as well. She made sure to discuss this with her female students when they discussed potential career paths.

> I kind of try to open their eyes to the realities of the situation because I still think there is that old boy network if you look across the country, especially in collegiate sport. If you look at athletic departments, they are all white men for the most part, so how are you going to break that stigma.

In the world of sport, it is often not what you know, but who you know. As the old boy network limits the ability of women and minorities to enter the field of sport management, it becomes even more important to form strong personal networks. Limited networks can reduce the number of professional opportunities available to a particular person (Bradley, 2000). As previously noted, three of the four faculty participants directly related their initial knowledge and subsequent application for their position to the encouragement or a discussion with a member of their network. This fact provides one example of the importance of a strong professional network.

Professional networks can be formed in a variety of different ways. Classmates tended to be very value members of a professional network. For example, Alice discussed one group from her network.

> One of the things that I have found, and that is not unique to me by any means, is that the people I went to school with as well as the people who were in school at the same time that I was, who we met up at conferences.

Connie also discussed her former classmates as part of her peer network.

> The beauty of a PhD program is that they become your network and a very important network because then you know all of their colleagues and you branch out really quickly.

Networks were not only critical for their own personal success, it was critical to the success of students as well. Both networks of peers and former students were often utilized to help current students obtain internships or employment. One of Elaine Janes favorite jobs was to help students look for a good internship. She often contacted alumni to see if they were in need of an interterm or if they knew someone else who did. Additionally, alumni would often contact her directly if they were looking for an intern.

Connie also discussed the benefits of networking and her attitude towards it. First, she believed that men were much better at networking than women. This gave them an advantage in any field when applying for jobs. Additionally, the increased networking of men gave them an advantage when trying to enter a new field. She felt that women needed to focus on networking and doing a better job of it because it was not what you know, but who you know. Connie was also working to develop her network and get better at the networking process. She hoped that if she and a male would be up for a job, she would know just as many people as he did because she had made herself network.

When asked about tips for networking, she shared advice and tips to networking that she had learned.

> I read somewhere that whenever you are at networking potential events, and when you are in an area where you could network, you should spend 85 percent of your time with people you don't know and avoid your comfort zone and avoid people that you don't know and I really try to put that into practice.

Even though she doesn't love networking, it is becoming more natural. She also sees it as a huge part of her job, so it is something that she will make herself do it. However, she did feel that networking was critical, especially for women. She stated, "We as women need to do a better job of it, because that is how you get jobs now. It is who you know."

Faculty Support

Support is often cited as a critical issue throughout the course of a woman's professional development. Women need various sources of support for their career, as they report not being as supported as their male peers (Acker, 1990; Acker & Armenti, 2004). Support from the peers was considered crucial, as several members mentioned that their families did not understand exactly what their jobs entailed. These misconceptions started during graduate school. Ashley spoke to the confusion.

> I mean my family was supportive but they really didn't understand what you are going through. Your peers are the ones who get it. Everyone else kind of understands but they don't because they are not in it. They don't understand.

> They don't see comps, and writing the dissertation, and trying to apply for jobs when there are three jobs out there.

This confusion continued when they became full-time faculty. Alice stated, "my parents really don't have a clue what I do. My dad is like, so you teach three classes? What else do you do?" She believes her parents support her career choice, though they don't totally understand what it all entails. Connie also had a similar experience.

> Even now, my stepmom and dad are pretty convinced I teach one or two classes and then I go home. They think I work maybe 12 hours a week and that is all I do. You know, they just don't get it is a little more than that. There is grading, copying, and research, and then writing and they don't understand all of the different things it entails. That is really annoying.

She also mentioned that sport management caused confusion.

> I know I still get from people in the family that think I am sport medicine. Once, an uncle thought I was a lawyer, so I'm not sure if I haven't been clear enough but they know something related to sport and something related to a doctor. I've started to say that I'm a professor in business with an emphasis in sport. That seems to make more sense than sport management.

Since all of the faculty members reported that their family doesn't entirely understand their job requirements, they often look to other sources of support when they are having difficulties in their career.

Mentor Relationships

One crucial area of support provided to faculty comes from mentors. When senior faculty was asked what advice they would give to young professors, mentoring is often mentioned as a critical support tool (Gibson, 2006). Gibson also found that mentoring helped increase overall job satisfaction. Concurrent with the literature, three of the four participants noted they had formed mentor-protégé relationships throughout their academic careers. Additionally, they confirmed that these various relationships were critical for their success.

Alice had several different mentors at different stages of her career. During her time as a master's student, her major advisor became her mentor. She developed another mentor relationship while working on her PhD. Throughout her doctoral schooling, she worked closely with them both. When she took her first faculty position, another mentor-protégé relationship was formed with a new co-worker. She discussed how this relationship occurred.

> I just kind of recognized that this is someone that could teach me a lot. And whether she knew it or not, I just glommed on to her. She was the one I would run to for everything; from how to work the Xerox machine to what do I do with these students who I can't get to do what I think they need to be doing. She was wonderful through everything. She was incredibly supportive, whether it was research or such.

Elaine Janes also mentioned mentoring as a critical tool to her success. "I look at things differently and think about things differently as a result of him." In addition to

the support that she received from her mentors, she also noted the development of a research relationship. Their similar research interests had led to the formation of the mentoring relationship, and this had led to several publications. This fact is critical, as women often report lower research productivity than their male counterparts (Harper et al., 2001).

Ashley also had developed significant mentoring relationships on her journey through academia. Similar to Alice and Elaine Janes, she had different mentors at each stage of her graduate studies. Through their guidance, she decided to work on her PhD. Her mentors introduced her to research and encouraged her to continue in academia. She felt that her mentors were critical to her success, stating, "I never would have gotten through it."

In addition to general support, the participants received career advice from mentors. As Elaine Janes worked on her PhD, her goal was to become an athletic director. However, her mentor offered this advice:

> She said, look. You are not going to be an athletic director. You are going to be the assistant or associate athletic director to the male who is the athletic director and you are going to fight with him, and you will not be able to avoid him.

Her mentor noted that in academia, you may have fights with the dean, but you could avoid the dean. This piece of advice steered her toward academia.

Alice received similar cautions when deciding to shift her research focus. During her early years as a professor, she had been doing research studying athletes and was

looking to transition into a much more controversial topic. While seeking advice from her mentors, she was cautioned by several at the timing of this decision.

> I know they were being completely maternal. They were being completely worried about my well-being as a career person. They were not, not that they weren't supportive, but there were saying just get tenure. They were saying this probably isn't a real smart way to go. It is going to be a difficult route to take. You are better off doing what you are doing.

Though she received cautions from her mentors, once Alice decided to switch her research focus, she received nothing but support from her mentors.

All three women had both male and female mentors; however, it was clear that all had more experiences with female mentors. None of the participants reported consciously seeking out female mentors, though they may have gravitated toward them. Additionally, they felt that being mentored by a woman was different. Alice said

> For whatever reason, I have gravitated to being mentored by the strong females in the field. I do tend to gravitate toward the women and I think it was because of the understanding that this is a male dominated field. For the most part, I think I did gravitate toward them because we did have a common understanding. That kind of that old notion of a standpoint.

It was clear that several of the participants sought out relationships with others who shared similar experiences. The second tenet of feminist standpoint theory speaks to this issue. It states that states that women share one or more essential properties that,

in essence, make them who they are (Harding, 2001). As all of the participants share a gender, many similarities may be found due to their commonalities as women.

Three participants had strong mentor-protégé relationships throughout their academic careers; however, one participant did not. Connie did not have a mentor throughout the graduate school process. However she felt "it would be really nice to have known what I was getting into." When she started her PhD, she knew there would be teaching and that there was a research component, but did not know much more beyond that. The lack of mentor continues to have an impact on her today. She makes a conscious effort to give students the information, support, and help that she lacked.

> When I hear people want to do PhDs now, I just tell them everything that they could ever want to know. Sometimes there is a benefit of not having that experience because you realize how much it would have help you, and you pay it forward.

As Connie moved forward in her academic career, she noted that she was looking to identify potential mentors at her current institution and possibly form those new relationships.

As the benefits of mentoring relationships become better known, many schools are working to create these relationships by assigning mentors to new faculty members (Gibson, 2006). Though all participants mentioned that the mentor relationship was a critical support mechanism in their careers, Elaine Janes stressed that forcing a mentor-protégé relationship was not the way to go.

> My mentors just emerged. The thing now, it seems to be really popular, a mentor and a mentee. What on earth is a mentee? I mean, it's a protégé! They are so uncomfortable dictating mentoring that they don't even dare to call it protégé. Whereas, you know, a mentor-protégé relationship emerges. A mentor and an artificial mentee relationship is forced.

Professional Support

As each of the women has moved through their careers, each has found a variety of sources of support. In addition to the mentoring relationships previously discussed, each participant noted that professional organizations and attending conferences have provided a great source of support and professional opportunities throughout their careers. Elaine Janes discussed both the professional and personal relationships that she formed at the North American Society of Sport Management (NASSM) conferences. She cited the formation of many friendships with people that she admired by participating in NASSM. These friendships were formed with faculty at other institutions, broadening her network. In addition to NASSM, she also valued her state American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance (AAHPERD) conference.

> Also, I like my state AAHPERD. I go there every year and there are very few sport management people that do. There are a handful of us. I like it because no one is there to advance their own research agenda or career. Nobody is there to rub elbows with the rich and famous. Nobody is there to show off. Everybody is

> there to share and learn best practices. It is really a very nice atmosphere. Everybody is there just to share and to learn.

These conferences provided a place to share ideas and passion for the field.

Ashley was also presented with an opportunity for professional support and opportunities while at a conference. She was approached by someone at a conference because he knew about her research interest. He told her about a group she might be interested in and suggested she attend their conference and present her research. After she attended, she formed many new friendships with people in the group. These new friends shared her research interests and provided a sounding board for problems.

In addition to the personal support that was gained through conference participation, Alice also noted the abundant amount of professional experience gained from participation in national organizations and conferences.

> I was a student representative on the executive board. Later I was secretary/treasurer and then I was elected president. From when I was a student through my presidency year, there was not a year that I was not on a committee or on the executive board. So that organization was what I leaned on and where I grew up and what mentored me. It was where I got most of my mentorship and where I put in most of my professional service.

Alice mentioned that national conferences and organizations are not the only opportunity for career support. In fact, she felt that smaller, more specialized conferences that bring together an interdisciplinary group were also very beneficial. She cited these conferences as a chance to see colleagues and friends from different fields,

such as pedagogy and sociology, that did not usually attend the same national conventions that she did. In addition to the chance to visit with her peers, she also noted that these smaller conferences often enhanced her excitement for the field.

> Those small, focused conferences to me are a real boost. A real shot in the arm because you are with the top scholars across disciplines on a very narrow topic area. The last one of those, the focus was on sexuality in sport. Again, you have people from all over, and all disciplines and those are the conferences that I think are just the most exciting. You can turn to anybody in an elevator and know that you have something in common to chat about.

In addition to the professional conferences, Connie found other professional relationships to be very beneficial. She had developed a relationship with the athletic department at the University and they often provided her with consulting opportunities. This relationship provided a chance for research.

Summary

Throughout the interviews, it became very clear, even though each faculty member had different issues that dealt with in their career, they all felt very satisfied with their careers. Elaine Janes was nearing the end of her career. However, she reported that she had really enjoyed her career, especially working with students and keeping in contact with those students after they had graduated. Her favorite part of academe was that "Everyone I come in contact with every day has to do what I say". The other part of the job was simply being an educator. She did not like people who identified themselves as sport marketers.

> If you want to be a sport marketer, you need to go work for the Browns or the Jets or somebody. No you are a sport management educator and I am proud to say that. I'm not embarrassed to say that at all.

Alice also enjoyed her time as a professor.

> There have been some challenging times, but for the most part, yeah. I mean, I love what I do. I love the flexibility. I love the students and being able to work closely with graduate students with research.

Connie also enjoyed her job, claiming "I love, and I truly believe it is the greatest job in the world."

In addition to enjoying academia, each of the participants noted that they loved the school they worked at. In fact, it is the only institution that all four participants had worked at. Elaine Janes noted that it would be the only school she was at throughout her career, as she was nearing retirement. However, that was not the initial plan for any of them. Alice thought she would be at the University for two to three years, tops. However, she said "the university has been good to me and the program has been good to me." A plan of two years turned into a career of over twenty. Connie also estimated that she would be there only two or three years after she was hired. However, that turned out not to be the case. Ashley did not anticipate leaving the University at any time in the near future. When asked about her general experiences, she said that she would rate "90 percent of my experiences have been positive. I think I am very fortunate."

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

The findings in this case study highlight the importance of exploring the experiences of tenured or tenure-track female sport management faculty members. The women in the study had a variety of experiences, with some experiencing various levels of stereotypes or discrimination. Framed as an instrumental case study, the purpose of this study was to examine the experiences of tenured or tenure-track female sport management faculty members at one institution. The findings of the study are specific to these women; however, women in similar roles or other academic positions, such as non-tenured positions or lecturers in sport management departments at other institutions in the United States may have similar experiences (Harris, 2009; Stancato, 2000). However, it is important to note that the culture of this sport management department may be considered very unique because of the number of female faculty members. It should be noted that all of the women who participated had only held faculty positions at this institution throughout their professional academic careers. Due to all of these factors, it is important to be careful about transferring or generalizing these results to other sport management faculty members at other departments. Additionally, as the findings were focused on the experiences of female tenured or tenure-track faculty members in sport management departments, the finding of this study may not be transferable to women outside sport management departments or the academic context.

Discussion

The research question sought to understand the experiences of tenured and tenure-track female faculty members during their professional careers. Feminist standpoint theory was utilized to clarify the findings. One important note should be emphasized before discussing the findings. It should be noted that all of the experiences discussed by the participants need not be limited to those that can only be experienced by women. Male faculty in sport management departments may not experience marginalization based on their gender. Areas of work-life conflict discussed may be experienced by male as well as female faculty. Therefore, when employing feminist standpoint theory, it is not necessary for experiences to only relate to women. What is necessary is to examine those experiences through the women's eyes. Though the experience may be common for men and women, the understanding and implications shaped by each gender may be entirely different. For example, the importance of mentoring may take on an entirely different meaning when being employed by women. Additionally, as women tend to feel more pressure in the workplace, mentoring relationships may be valued as more critical to them.

This investigation found that even though each participant had extremely varied paths to their current position, they did have an assortment of shared experiences as women while faculty at the University. These experiences included the impact of institutional and departmental climates, marginalization, and career support.

Using feminist standpoint theory as a framework for the study provided an appropriate lens to analyze the experiences of the participants. Feminist standpoint

theory employs three tenets to understand the viewpoint of the world from those who are oppressed (Harding, 1991; Potter, 2006). For this study, one tenet was used to frame the findings; the first tenet, that knowledge is socially situated. The first tenet consists of two components: knowledge is produced by social groups and the social location of the group helps to shape its knowledge.

In accordance with the first tenet of feminist standpoint theory, the location of a social group should be examined, as it helps form knowledge (Harding, 2001). The institutional and departmental climates were important factors to each of the participants for this reason. As each of the participants had only been employed by the University, all of their experiences had been shaped by the same institutional and departmental climates. Caplan (1993) found that institutional climate played a key role in the experiences of women in the workforce, specifically since those responsible for setting the institutional climate were often white males. The strong presence of female leadership, as well as a supportive male leadership led to perceived professional opportunities for women at the University. In addition to the institutional climate, the departmental climate was also discussed. Two factors were discussed by the participants: academic strength and diversity. The department was well known for its strong faculty and sport management program. These were both factors that were important to the participants. In addition, the participants cited departmental diversity as important, discussing specifically the large number of female faculty. The combination of institutional and departmental climates provided an environment that supported the development of women faculty.

A second shared experience of the participants was marginalization. All of the women felt at one point or another in their career they had been marginalized on the basis of gender. The most common area the participants experienced this was in the classroom. However, the participants experienced this in networking and the presence of the old boys' network as well.

Marginalization occurred primarily in the classroom. As a result of their gender, three participants felt they had to prove their knowledge to the male students more than their male colleagues, an issue common to female faculty (Abel & Maltzer, 2007; Sprague & Massoni, 2005). Three of the women worked to prove their professional knowledge to students. Faculty enlisted several methods to combat this perception, most notably focusing on knowledge in current sporting events. Also in line with feminist standpoint theory, the social location of the classroom and subject matter impacted each participant. Gender norms often discourage women's interest in sport (Griffin, 1998). Since sport is not seen as an activity women participate in, it may cause students to doubt the knowledge of their female professors in an area they do not deem compatible with the professor's gender.

The impact of the old boys' network and networking opportunities on faculty was an issue that led to feelings of marginalization. Women felt limited prior to obtaining their position due to the notion of the old boys' network; thus, they formed their own professional networks to help with advancement. These networks often included mentors, former classmates, and colleagues.

The impact of mentoring cannot be underestimated (Gibson, 2006). Utilizing the first tenet illuminated how mentoring was a primary concern, as the women did not specifically seek out female mentors. All three participants who reported mentor relationships subconsciously found themselves looking for female mentors, in part due to the fact they had many experiences which were similar to their female mentor. They felt the similar "standpoint" was an added advantage in the relationship, since the female mentors would have experienced many of the same issues and could provide a unique insight on certain issues a male mentor could not. The social construction of knowledge played a key role in seeking a mentor. Additionally, the impact mentoring had on each participant was not at just one point of their career or significant in one area. Each participant which had a mentor was impacted and benefited in many critical ways from the mentor relationship. Most participants credited their mentor relationships with their success during their graduate schooling. However, it was important to note that mentoring relationships still played an important role for each participant. Interestingly, two participants stated that they had talked with their mentors about different issues within the past week.

Participation in conferences and affiliations with national organizations provided opportunities for the women. They felt attending these conferences provided an opportunity to learn new information and a chance to network with other faculty. Moreover, the relationships that they formed at these conferences served as a source of support. Finally, these networks provided them with an additional way to work toward tenure.

Overall, the four female tenure-track or tenured faculty reported they were extremely happy with their jobs as numerous factors were related to their overall job satisfaction. The first was student interactions. The women treasured those interactions and spoke of them as one of the most important parts of the job. Working one on one with students during their time at the University (e.g. selecting internships, research projects), as well as after students had graduated, were valued. The second factor was the sport management department itself. The women noted the culture of the department, specifically mentioning the focus on diversity and the star-power of the faculty. The potential of working with women whose research was well known in the field was a positive aspect of the job. Even though many of the faculty had arrived at the University planning to only stay for two to three years, each member of the faculty had remained for much longer time periods than that. Three of participants initially took the job believing that it would be a transitional position, partially due to the location of the University and a desire to live in other parts of the United States. Furthermore, as this was the first job in academia for all of the participants, they expected that moving at some point during their career would be likely. However, the participants stated they remained at the University due to several reasons.

Conclusions and Implications

As noted in the literature review, research on women faculty has focused on women in a variety of different academic areas, but to this point has not examined women in sport management. Therefore, this study is significant because it looks specifically at women faculty working in a sport management department. Even though

each woman came from a variety of backgrounds and had many different experiences, their experiences as faculty can be used to help predict the experiences of other women sport management faculty members.

Throughout the interviews, it became very clear that several factors (e.g. departmental diversity, reputation) helped influence the participants' decision to come and work for the University. This information can be used to help other sport management departments in the United States identify ways to recruit and retain women faculty to their staff. Though the reputation of the faculty and the department were important to the women when they interviewed, the department's focus on diversity was also extremely important. The ability to work with people who may have the same experiences and view point was critical. Even though every sport management department may not be able to bring in the heavy hitters in the field, they can focus on the inclusiveness and focus on diversity of the department (Harper et al., 2001; Monk-Turner & Fogerty, 2010). An environment of inclusion will benefit both the faculty and the female students. Successful and satisfied women faculty help demonstrate to female students that women belong in sport management and can succeed in a male dominated field.

The professional development of each faculty member was also strongly influenced by relationships with mentors. The support of mentoring was critical to all participants at various stages. Most of the women noted that they had mentors during their graduate career, though many of those relationships continued to this day. As each mentioned that their mentoring experience began during graduate school, it is clear that

now they will need to help develop the next generation of female faculty. Therefore, it is important the department help promote these relationships between current faculty and students (Pastore, 2003). This may provide a clear benefit to all involved. However, even though there is a benefit for these mentoring relationships, a department cannot force faculty to this happen, as noted by Elaine Janes. Additionally, the formation of these relationships takes time and effort. It would thus benefit departments to find ways to help encourage these relationships.

Each participant had found a way to succeed at their career. However, it is also significant to note that even with this success, these women were still working against very strong stereotypes. Even in a department that was evenly balanced, women still reported issues of tokenism and stereotypes, an issue which remains complex (Krefting, 2003; Krymkoswki & Mintz, 2008). While a department may make the effort to promote an inclusive environment, if the perception outside the department is that women do not belong in sport or sport management, issues will remain.

Though the women shared the challenges in their career, they all noted they were happy with their job. As such, none of the women reported plans to look for another job in the near future. Part of the reason they loved their job was because who they worked with and the environment of the department. These facts clearly state that the department environment has a significant role in the experiences of each faculty member (Caplan, 1993; Viers & Bliesznер, 2004).

Throughout the interviews, it was clear that each woman had their own experiences and their own standpoint. However, even with these differences, these four

women shared many of the same issues and challenges. These shared experiences are insightful and may be used to assist other women faculty in navigating the environments and their careers at different universities in the United States.

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APPENDIX A

Interview Question Guide

Examining the Experiences of Women Sport Management Faculty:
A Case-Study Analysis

I am very interested in the experiences of female sport management faculty members throughout their career. I would like to ask you questions about the various experiences you have had while you have been faculty member. Although I will be asking questions, I want you to feel free to take your time in answering the questions and to refuse to answer any question. My intention is to learn about your story. I love to hear stories from other faculty and I hope this interview will be fun.

Introductions

- Tell me a little about yourself.
- Tell me about your path to a career in sport management.
- How did you learn about your current position?
- What specifically drew you to this position?
- Did you have a mentor at any stage of your career? Yes or No. Who are they?
- How did having/not having a mentor influence you?

Personal Experiences in Academia

- Tell me about your experiences in academe.
- Tell me about some of your experiences in academia while teaching in the classroom.
    - Can you explain any positive experiences?
    - Can you explain any negative experiences?
    - Which have been the most significant?
    - How have these experiences influenced your career?
- Tell me about some of your experiences in academia dealing with student interaction.
    - Can you explain any positive experiences?
    - Can you explain any negative experiences?
    - Which have been the most significant?
    - How have these experiences influenced your career?

- Tell me about some of your experiences in academia while interacting with other faculty.
    - Can you explain any positive experiences?
    - Can you explain any negative experiences?
    - Which have been the most significant?
    - How have these experiences influenced your career?

- Do you feel that you have had to change who you are or modify your behavior in different contexts when dealing with other members of academia? Yes or No? Please explain.

- Have you ever felt bias against you because you are a woman? Yes or no? Please explain.

- Do you ever feel difficulty in balancing your work life with your personal life? Yes or no? Please explain.

- Based on your responses, how do you attempt to attain balance in your personal and work life?

Women in Academia

- What is your perception about the career opportunities available for women in academia?
    - Is that different from when you obtained your first faculty position? Yes or no? Please explain.
    - Is this different than those opportunities you perceive available for men? Yes or no? Please explain.
- What is your perception about the career opportunities available for women in sport management?
    - Is that different from when you obtained your first faculty position? Yes or no? Please explain.
    - Is this different than those opportunities you perceive available for men? Yes or no? Please explain.

- Have you experienced or do you foresee any barriers which may hinder you in your career? Yes or no? Please explain.

- Do you foresee any barriers which may hinder other women in their careers? Yes or no? Please explain.

- Do you see any barriers which may hinder women from obtaining a professional career in sport management? Yes or no? Please explain.

- Who do you think you has provided most of the support for your career? (i.e. women, men, family, friends, others) Explain.

- What organizations that have provided support for your career?

- What kinds of professional relationships do you have with other women on campus?

- What kinds of personal relationships do you have with other women on campus?

Closing questions

- Do you have any other comments regarding women in academia or the field of sport management that I may have missed?

- Is there anything else you want to add or feel is important?

- Do you have any questions for me?

APPENDIX B

Examining the Experiences of Women Sport Management Faculty: A Case-Study Analysis

The goal of this questionnaire is to understand the experiences of female sport management faculty. Please provide as much information as you feel comfortable.

SECTION I

Demographic Information: Please list the information or check the box(es) that most accurately represents you.

Name _____

Age _____ Race_____

Marital status: □ Never married □ Married □ Divorced or separated
□ Widowed □ Other

Children: □ Yes □ No
If yes, how many children and what are their ages? _____

SECTION II

Education Demographic Information: Consider your current status at your university. Please list the information or check the box(es) that most accurately represents you.

What are/were your majors(s) for the respective degrees attained? Under each category please list all that apply. Example: Bachelor in Business, Master in Recreation, etc.

□ Bachelors	□ Master	□ Doctorate	□ Other

Years as college faculty/professor _____

Current job title _____

Number of years at current institution _____

Currently tenured □ Yes □ No
If yes, when did you receive tenure? _____

If no, when do you anticipate being tenured?_____

What research area do you focus on? Example: women in leadership positions, college athletics _____

APPENDIX C

Dr. _____

My name is Hailey Daehnke and I am currently working at my Ph.D. at Texas A&M University and working full time as an instructor at St. Ambrose University in Davenport, IA. I am currently working on my dissertation and am seeking your help.

For my dissertation, I will be examining the experiences of female professors in Sport Management departments using qualitative methods. The proposed project is a case study of female faculty members who are tenured or on the tenure track in a sport management program at one institution of higher education. After some research and suggestions from faculty at Texas A&M, Bowling Green was suggested as a possible location. I was wondering if you would be interested in being interviewed for this study.

If you agree to be in this study, you will be sent a series of questions pertaining to your experiences in the academia. Upon receipt of the interview questions, you and I will schedule a face to face interview in your location of choice. This interview will take between approximately 30 minutes to 1 hour in length.

If you could let me know your thoughts, I would be most appreciative.

Hailey Daehnke

APPENDIX D

CONSENT FORM

Examining the Experiences of Women Sport Management Faculty:
A Case-Study Analysis

Introduction:
The purpose of this form is to provide you information that may affect your decision as to whether or not to participate in this research study. If you decide to participate in this study, this form will also be used to record your consent.

You have been asked to participate in a research project studying the experiences of female tenure-track faculty in Sport Management programs. The purpose of the study is to examine the experiences of female academics in sport management positions and examine how they negotiate their jobs and create satisfaction in their field. Women hired into faculty positions must negotiate the complicated areas of being a female in a male dominated arena. This study examines the challenges women face and experiences they have when negotiating their positionality within a male dominated domain.

Procedure:
If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to participate in one interview approximately 30 – 60 minutes in length. Interviews will be conducted at a public location of the participants choosing.

Risks:
The risks associated in this study are minimal, and are not greater than risks ordinarily encountered in daily life. It is possible that you may feel uncomfortable answering some of the research questions. You may skip any questions that you do not wish to answer. In addition, you may stop answering questions or discontinue participation at any time.

Benefits:
You will receive no direct benefit from participation. However, participation will benefit other women who seek these positions, or for those institutions who seek to hire women for these positions.

Participation:
Your participation is voluntary. You may decide not to participate or to withdraw at any time.

Confidentiality:
This study is confidential and the records of this study will be kept private. In order to ensure confidentiality, your name will not be recorded in the interview or recorded on any documents. A pseudonym will be used in exchange of your name and the name of

any persons that are stated in the interview. Only me, the primary investigator, will know the true identity of the participants.
No identifiers linking you to this study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Research records will be stored securely and only Hailey Daehnke and Dr. Akilah Carter will have access to the records.

If you choose to participate in this study, you may be audio recorded. Any audio recordings will be stored securely and only Hailey Daehnke will have access to the recordings. Any recordings will be kept for one and then erased.

Researcher Contact Information :
If you have questions regarding this study, you may contact Hailey Daehnke (402) 416-6587, DaehnkeHaileyE@sau.edu.

Texas A&M Contact Information:
This research study has been reviewed by the Human Subjects' Protection Program and/or the Institutional Review Board at Texas A&M University. For research-related problems or questions regarding your rights as a research participant, you can contact these offices at (979) 458-4067 or irb@tamu.edu.

Signature:
Please be sure you have read the above information, asked questions and received answers to your satisfaction. You will be given a copy of the consent form for your records. By signing this document, you consent to participate in this study.

_____ I agree to be audio recorded.
_____ I do not want to be audio recorded.

Signature of Participant: _____ **Date:** _____

Printed Name: _____ _____

Signature of Person Obtaining Consent: _____ **Date:** _____

Printed Name: __Hailey E. Daehnke_____

PLEASE SIGN BOTH COPIES OF THIS FORM. KEEP ONE AND RETURN THE OTHER TO THE INVESTIGATOR.

VITA

Name:	Hailey E. Daehnke
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	M.S.E., Wayne State College, 2006
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